P.H. SHERIDAN
W.T. SHERMAN
D.D. PORTER
U.S. GRANT
GEO. G. MEADE
W.S. HANCOCK
O.O. HOWARD

MEN OF OUR DAY;

OR,

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES

OF

PATRIOTS, ORATORS, STATESMEN, GENERALS, REFORMERS, FINANCIERS AND MERCHANTS,

NOW ON THE STAGE OF ACTION:

INCLUDING

THOSE WHO IN MILITARY, POLITICAL, BUSINESS AND SOCIAL LIFE, ARE THE PROMINENT LEADERS OF THE TIME IN THIS COUNTRY.

BY L. P. BROCKETT, M. D.,

AUTHOR OF "OUR GREAT CAPTAINS," "WOMEN'S WORK IN THE CIVIL WAR," "LIFE AND TIMES OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN," "THE BIOGRAPHICAL PORTIONS OF APPLETON'S ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA," ETC., ETC.

ELEGANTLY ILLUSTRATED WITH FORTY-TWO PORTRAITS FROM LIFE.

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PREFACE.

"NOTHING," says a recent epigrammatic writer, "succeeds like success." We may add, nothing interests the public like the history of success. Let a man be poor, obscure, and undistinguished by any remarkable or conspicuous deeds, and though he had the wisdom of Solomon, the meekness of Moses, the patience of Job, or the faith of Abraham, yet there would be little or no interest felt in his history. An humble and outwardly quiet life may have its record of heart struggles, its days of sunshine and shadow, its nights of wearying anxiety and mental disquiet, which are full of interest to beings of higher intelligence than ours, and form to the psychologist a curious study; but for the great mass of mankind they possess no charm.

But let this same man achieve, slowly or suddenly, a high position; let him, by some cunning invention, or by some bold and daring enterprise, attain a princely fortune; or, better still, by the bold avowal of some great

and righteous principle, and patient adherence to it through years of obloquy and persecution, win from a reluctant world admiration for his fearless persistency; let him at a fitting moment enunciate some great truth which shall influence a continent, or speak some word which shall loosen a nation's bonds; let him by calm cool bravery, sound judgment and unflinching resolution, win his way up from a humble position to the command of great armies, and leading them wisely, bring a long and bloody war to a close; or in the quiet of his study, let him forge those lyrics, whose white heat shall set the world aflame, and there will be enough to interest themselves in him. His every movement will be chronicled; thousands will seek to honor themselves in honoring him; his words will be carefully noted and treasured; and even the most trivial incidents of his childhood and youth will be eagerly sought for, and read with the greatest avidity.

And there is nothing surprising, nothing wrong in this. When a man has achieved greatness, it is natural that we should desire to know the steps by which he has attained to his present position, for there is in every heart, and especially in the hearts of the young, a hope, seldom expressed, often hardly acknowledged to themselves, that, knowing the way, they, too, may succeed

in ascending to that lofty and distant summit, where "Fame's proud temple shines afar;" and though but few have the patience and the gifts to realize their fond expectation, yet they are often led to greater exertion than they would have made but for the inspiration of such a hope.

But while thus inciting the young to emulate the struggles and toils by which others have gained exalted station or distinction, the biographer must be impartial, and record, though in a kindly spirit, the errors and faults, as well as the good qualities of those of whom he writes. If he fails to do this, and indulges in indiscriminate eulogy, the lesson he seeks to impart will be lost; for there is no perfection in human life, and a just, but not unkind, delineation of the faults and errors of others, may lead the young reader to avoid them in his own life.

It is at all times a matter of difficulty, in the case of living men, to award the just measure of either praise or blame in a biographical sketch; and never more so, than when the subject is one of the candidates for high office, in a heated and violent political campaign; but the writer has endeavored, without partisan bitterness or prejudice, for or against either of the prominent political leaders, to draw their portraits, leaning in every case to the side of mercy rather than of severity

How far he has been successful in this respect his readers must decide. For the rest, his sources of information have been ample, and as he believes thoroughly authentic, and he has endeavored to use them as wisely as he could. That the volume may aid in making all its readers, and especially the young, wiser, by giving them loftier and more earnest aims, is his sincere hope and desire.

L. P. B.

Brooklyn, N. Y., *July*, 1872.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

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ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT,

PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN all human history, whenever a nation has been rent by internal convulsions, or threatened with destruction by foreign invasion, the occasion has always developed some great leader to command its armies, or restore peace between its embittered factions.

In tracing the lives of the men thus called to leadership, three facts constantly attract our notice. They are almost, without exception, of and from the people; rarely or never from the aristocratic class. Though intelligent and thoughtful men, they have usually led quiet and often obscure lives till called to their great duties, and not unseldom, neither they nor their friends were aware of the power which was held in reserve in them. And, finally, they have not been the men first selected by popular acclaim, for the work which they accomplish.

President Grant has been no exception to these general laws. He is a man of the people: though educated for the army and serving in it for some years in a subordinate capacity, his life had been quiet and obscure, and neither he nor his friends were conscious of his possession of these rare faculties which he subsequently displayed. Moreover, in those days, when General McClellan was regarded as the "coming man," there seemed as little probability that this plain taciturn brigadier at the West,

would become the general-in-chief of all our armies, and later, the President of the United States, as that the diminutive sub-lieutenant of the French army would become Emperor of France, and arbiter of the destinies of Europe.

President Grant is descended from Matthew Grant, a native of Plymouth, England, or its vicinity, who emigrated to Dorchester, Massachusetts, in 1630, and to Windsor, Connecticut, in 1636. His son and grandson, both named Samuel, settled in the adjacent town of Tolland. Noah, a son of the second Samuel, removed to Coventry, Connecticut, and two of his sons, Noah and Solomon, were officers (captain and lieutenant) in the Provincial army, in the old French war, and both were slain at Crown Point, or its vicinity, in 1756. Captain Noah Grant left a family in Coventry, and his eldest son, also Noah, entered the Continental army at the beginning of the Revolutionary war, as lieutenant of militia, and remained in it till its close, and, though in many battles, was never wounded. After the war he settled in Westmoreland county, Pennsylvania, where his son, Jesse Root Grant, one of a numerous family, was born, in January, 1794. The father removed in 1799 to what is now Columbiana county, and in 1805 to Portage county, Ohio.

At the age of sixteen, Jesse was apprenticed to his half-brother, then living at Maysville, Kentucky, to learn the tanning business, and after serving his time, he set up for himself at Ravenna, Portage county, Ohio. Here several years of toil were followed by a severe and protracted illness from intermittent fever. In 1820 he removed to Point Pleasant, Ohio, twenty-five miles above Cincinnati, and the same year married Miss Hannah Simpson, of Clermont county, Ohio. Their eldest child, Ulysses Simpson Grant, or as he was christened, Hiram Ulysses Grant, was born at Point Pleasant, April 27, 1822.

His father, who is yet living, and then an enterprising and

self-reliant business man, was ready to enter upon any honest undertaking which gave a promise of success. He continued his business as a tanner, but did not confine himself exclusively to that, and whatever he undertook prospered. The mother of the President is also still living, a woman of sound judgment, marked and superior moral and mental traits and endowments, a sincere and consistent Christian, whose steadiness, firmness, and strength of character have impressed themselves indelibly upon her children.

The young Ulysses is said to have developed, almost from infancy, a remarkable passion for horses. From the age of five years, his father states, he would ride the horses to water, standing up on their bare backs, and at eight or nine would stand up on one foot and drive them at full speed. At seven and a half years he harnessed and drove a horse alone all day, climbing into the manger to put the bridle and collar on. At eight and a half, he would drive a team day after day hauling wood, and at ten would manage a pair of spirited horses on a long journey, with perfect skill and safety. So complete was his mastery of horses that he broke them with great facility, and no horse could throw him. From the various incidents which his father, with a pardonable pride, relates of him, we find evidence of his possessing, even in childhood, the qualities of system, method, calculation, self-possession, and that cool imperturbable courage and persistency which have since marked his character. His judgment was beyond his years. Few boys in their twelfth year could have been trusted to go to a large city two hundred miles distant, and take a deposition to be used elsewhere in a lawsuit; and fewer still, at the same age, would have had the judgment and mechanical tact to load upon a wagon a number of pieces of heavy timber a foot square, and fourteen feet long with no aid except that of a horse.

His self-possession and imperturbability were fairly illustrated in an incident which his father relates of him as occurring when he was about twelve years old.

"He drove a pair of horses to Augusta, Kentucky, twelve miles from Georgetown, and was persuaded to remain over night, in order to bring back two young ladies, who would not be ready to leave until the next morning. The route lay across White Oak Creek. The Ohio river had been rising in the night, and the back water in the creek was so high, when they came to cross it in returning, that the first thing they knew the horses were swimming, and the water was up to their own waists. The ladies were terribly frightened, and began to scream. In the midst of the excitement, Ulysses, who was on a forward seat, looked back to the ladies, and with an air perfectly undisturbed, merely said: '*Don't speak—I will take you through safe.*'"

He was popular with his schoolfellows and the boys of his age, and though not a talker or boaster, not tyrannical or imperious, not quarrelsome or violent, he fell naturally into his place as a leader among the boys. He was not remarkable as a scholar, though fond of mathematics and maintaining a creditable position in his studies generally. For the rest, he was a manly, active, industrious boy, with a clear head, a kind heart, a well balanced judgment, fond of all outdoor sports and labors, and with a well knit frame and a constitution of great vitality and endurance.

Though always ready to work, he had a special dislike for the tanning business, and whenever called upon to do any work in connection with the tannery, he would find something else to do, and hire a boy to work there in his place. When he was a little more than sixteen years of age, his father called upon him one day to work with him in the beam-room of the tannery He obeyed, but expressed to his father the strong

dislike he felt for the business, and his determination not to follow it after he came of age. His father replied that he did not wish him to work at it unless he was disposed to follow it in after life, and inquired what business he would like to enter upon. He answered that he would like either to be a farmer, a down-the-river trader, or to get an education. The first two avocations his father thought out of the question, as he was then situated, but inquired how he would like to go to the Military Academy at West Point. This suited the boy exactly, and the father hearing that there was a vacancy in his own Congressional District, then represented by the Hon. (afterward General) Thomas S. Hamer, made application, and Ulysses was appointed immediately, and in the summer of 1839, was admitted as a cadet in the Military Academy. The standard of admission at West Point was then very low, and he was below most of his eighty-seven classmates in scholarship. Several of them had graduated from college before entering the Academy, and all had enjoyed much better advantages than he, yet at the end of the four years' course, only thirty-nine graduated, and among these Ulysses S. Grant stood twenty-first—midway of the class. He ranked high in mathematics and in all cavalry exercises, and had made good progress in engineering and fortification studies. His demerits were almost wholly of a trivial character, violations of some of the minor regulations of etiquette, in the buttoning of his coat, the tying of his cravat or shoes, or matters of that sort.

Dr. Coppée, now President of Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, who was at West Point with Grant, says of him: "I remember him as a plain, common sense, straight-forward youth quiet, rather of the old head on the young shoulders order, shunning notoriety; quite contented while others were grumbling; taking to his military duties in a very business-like

manner, not a prominent man in the corps, but respected by all and very popular with his friends. The *soubriquet* of "Uncle Sam" was given him there, where every good fellow has a nickname, from these very qualities; indeed he was a very uncle-like sort of youth. He was then and always an excellent horseman, and his picture rises before me as I write, in the old torn-coat, obsolescent leather gig-top, loose riding pantaloons with spurs buckled over them, going with his clanging saber to the drill-hall. He exhibited but little enthusiasm in any thing; his best standing was in the mathematical branches and their application to tactics and military engineering."

On his graduation in 1843, cadet Grant was assigned a position as brevet second lieutenant of the fourth regiment, United States Infantry, and joined his regiment in the autumn of that year, at Jefferson Barracks, near St. Louis, Missouri. He had a classmate, Frederick T. Dent, who was from St. Louis, and who had been assigned like himself to the fourth infantry. The two were warm friends, and Lieutenant Dent (now Brigadier-General Dent, on Gen. Sherman's staff) took his classmate to his own home, whenever they could obtain leave. Here he formed the acquaintance of the estimable lady, then Miss Maria Dent, whom five years subsequently he married. His stay at Jefferson Barracks was not long. In less than a year he was ordered to Camp Salubrity, Natchitoches, Louisiana, and a year later to the Mexican frontier, under the order for military occupation of Texas. There, on the 30th of September, 1845, he attained his commission as second lieutenant, and by special favor, was allowed to remain in the fourth infantry, though his appointment was originally made out to the seventh. When the war with Mexico at last commenced, the fourth infantry formed a part of General Zachary Taylor's army of occupation, and Lieutenant Grant took as active a part as his rank and position

permitted, in the battles of Palo Alto, May 8, 1846,—Resaca de la Palma, May 9,—Monterey, September 21–23, where his gallant conduct received honorable mention from his commander, and in the siege of Vera Cruz, March 9–29, 1847. On the 1st of April, he was appointed quartermaster of the fourth infantry, preparatory to the long and difficult march upon the city of Mexico, and he held this position from that time, to July 23, 1848, after the close of the Mexican war. But though his early experiences qualified him to fill this position with great ability, he did not, as by the army regulations he might, consider himself excused from service in the field. He was in nearly every battle of the campaign; at Cerro Gordo, April 17–18, 1847, at San Antonio, August 20, at Churubusco, the same day, at Molino del Rey, September 8, where his gallant and meritorious conduct procured him a brevet of first lieutenant, and the praise of his commander, at the storming of Chapultepec, September 13, where he won a brevet of captain and the encomiums of that stern old soldier General Worth, and at the assault and capture of the city of Mexico, September 13–18, 1847, where he obtained the more substantial honor of a promotion, two days later, to the first lieutenancy in his regiment. After the war, he was assigned to garrison duty at Sackett's Harbor, New York, for a year, then again made quartermaster of his regiment, which position he held for four years, to September 30, 1853. He had married in 1848, soon after his return from Mexico, and the next four years were passed in quiet garrison duty, at Sackett's Harbor, Detroit, Michigan, again at Sackett's Harbor, and at Fort Columbus, New York. But in 1852, he was assigned to duty at Benicia, California, and subsequently at Columbia Barracks, and at Fort Vancouver, Oregon, and Fort Humboldt, California. In August, 1853, he attained to a captaincy, and after another year's service

on the Pacific slope, he resigned his commission, July 31, 1854. He was prompted to this step by several considerations. It was a time of peace, and the prospect of rapid promotion was slight, especially to a man who had not thus far developed those brilliant qualities, which sometimes enable a man to mount rapidly, even in peace, the ladder of promotion; the pay of a captain in the regular army, especially with the great cost of every thing on the Pacific coast at that time, was not sufficient to furnish more than a bare support to a man with a family; he was liable to be assigned almost constantly, as he had been for two years already, to duty on frontier posts, where he could not take his family, and where the associations were unpleasant. He was now thirty-two years old, and if he was to be any thing more than a poor, army captain, it was time that he should make a beginning. Such are the reasons assigned by his family for this step, which seemed for a time to be an unfortunate one. Shall we add another, which there is every reason for believing to be true, and which, rightly considered, does him honor? In the monotony and tedium of barrack and garrison life, and surrounded by rough associates, he had formed the habit, it is said, of drinking freely, and that habit was becoming so marked, that the War Department had thought it necessary to reprove him for it. By abandoning his associates and the associations in which he had been thrown on the Pacific coast, there was an opportunity for him to enter upon a new life, and to abstain thenceforward from this ruinous indulgence. He returned to the east, and having rejoined his family, who had remained at his father's, during his absence on the Pacific, he removed to the vicinity of St. Louis, where his father-in-law had given his wife a small farm, and his father had stocked it. Captain Grant put in practice his resolution to abandon all intoxicating drinks, and labored zealously on his farm for four years. President

Coppée speaks of having met him at St. Louis in his farmer's rig, whip in hand, and having enjoyed a very pleasant interview with him, at which Joseph J. Reynolds, Don Carlos Buell, and Major Chapman of the cavalry were also present. He adds, "If Grant had ever used spirits, as is not unlikely, I distinctly remember that, upon the proposal being made to drink, Grant said, 'I will go in and look at you, for I never drink any thing;' and the other officers who saw him frequently, afterward told me that he drank nothing but water."

But he was not destined to succeed as a farmer. He was industrious, steady, and economical, but it was all in vain. In 1858, he relinquished the farm and moved into St. Louis, and at first undertook the real-estate business with a man named Boggs, but after a few months' trial, finding that the business was not sufficient to support both families, he relinquished it to his partner and sought for something else. He next obtained a position in the custom house, but the death of the collector who appointed him, caused him to lose that in a few months. He had endeavored while on his farm to eke out his scanty income by occasionally acting as collector, as auctioneer, etc., but without any considerable success.

Meanwhile, his father had been prospering, and had, in connection with two of his younger sons, established a leather and harness store at Galena, Illinois. He now offered Ulysses a position and interest in this store, which was gladly and thankfully accepted. For two years he continued in this business, which seemed better suited to his tastes than the farm.

It is said, that up to this time he had been a Democrat in his political views. With his father's strong Whig and Republican sentiments, this hardly seems probable. It is more credible that, as he himself is reported to have said, he had not voted for years, and had taken very little interest in national affairs

The education and general tone of feeling among the officers of the army, had made them, to a great extent, sympathizers with the South, pro-slavery in their views, and opposed to the Republicans, whom they regarded as, in some sort, the Abolitionists under a new name. How far Captain Grant shared these feelings, is uncertain.

One thing we know, he possessed that fine soldierly instinct of honor and loyalty, which was wanting in so many of his former comrades. When the Southern troops fired on the national flag at Sumter, he only knew that it was his country which was assailed, and thenceforward there was no question of politics. "On that morning of April 15, 1861," says a lady friend, who was in his family, "he laid down the paper containing the account of the bombardment, walked round the counter, and drew on his coat, saying: 'I am for the war to put down this wicked rebellion. The Government educated me for the army, and though I served faithfully through one war, I feel still a little in debt for my education, and am ready to discharge the obligation.'" He went out into the streets of Galena, aided in organizing and drilling a company of volunteers, with whom he marched to Springfield, the capital of the State. He had no ambition to serve as commander of this company, and hence declined their nomination of him for captain. Hon. E. B. Washburne, then member of Congress from the Galena District, and his firm friend, then and since, accompanied him to Springfield, and introduced him to Governor Yates, who at once offered him the position of adjutant-general, which he accepted, and filled very successfully. When the first quotas from Illinois had been organized, and mostly mustered into service, Adjutant-General Grant made a flying visit to his father at Covington, Kentucky, and while there, Governor Yates, finding that the colonel of the 21st Illinois volunteer regiment was entirely

unfit for his position, removed him, and telegraphed Grant that he had appointed him to the vacancy. He was on his way to Springfield at that time, and immediately assumed command. In a short time they were under most admirable discipline, and an alarm occurring in regard to a Rebel attack upon Quincy, Illinois, he marched them thither on foot, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles, a feat at that time considered most extraordinary.

The first service to which the 21st Illinois was assigned, was to guard the Hannibal and St. Joseph railroad. Several regiments having been ordered to this service, it was necessary that one of the regimental commanders should become acting brigadier-general, and control the whole, as no brigadier-general had been assigned to the command. For this office Grant, who, though the youngest colonel on the ground, was the only graduate of West Point, was selected, and took command at Mexico, Missouri, July 31, 1861. On the 9th of August, Colonel Grant was commissioned brigadier-general (his commission dating from the 17th of May), and sent with an adequate force to southern Missouri, where the rebel General Jeff. Thompson was threatening an advance. He visited Ironton, superintended the erection of fortifications there and at Marble creek, and, leaving a garrison in each place to defend it, hastened to Jefferson City, which was also threatened, and protected it from rebel attacks for ten days, when Thompson, having abandoned his purpose, General Grant left the Missouri capital to enter upon the command of the important district of Cairo.

It was while he was in southern Missouri, his biographers say, that he issued his famous special order concerning Mrs. Selvidge's pie. The incident, which illustrates somewhat forcibly the quiet humor which is a marked characteristic of the president, was something like this

In the rapid marches of his force in Southern Missouri their rations were often scanty, and not very palatable, but the region was poor and sparsely settled, and, for the most part, there was no chance of procuring food from the inhabitants of the country through which they were passing. At length, however, they emerged into a better and more cultivated section, and Lieutenant Wickham, of an Indiana cavalry regiment, who was in command of the advanced guard of eighty men, halted at a farm-house of somewhat more comfortable appearance than any which they had passed, and entered the building with two second lieutenants. Pretending to be Brigadier-General Grant, he demanded food for himself and his staff. The family, whose loyalty was somewhat doubtful, alarmed at the idea of the Union general being on their premises, hastily brought forward the best their house afforded, at the same time loudly protesting their attachment to the Union cause. The lieutenants ate their fill, and, offering to compensate their hosts, were told that there was nothing to pay; whereupon they went on their way, chuckling at their adroitness in getting so good a dinner for nothing. Soon after, General Grant, who had halted his army for a short rest a few miles further back, came up, and being rather favorably impressed with the appearance of the farm-house, rode up to the door and asked them if they would cook him a meal. The woman, who grudged the food already furnished to the self-styled general and his staff, replied gruffly, "No! General Grant and his staff have just been here, and eaten every thing in the house, except one pumpkin-pie."

"Ah!" said Grant; "what is your name?"

"Selvidge," answered the woman.

Tossing her a half-dollar, the general asked, "Will you keep that pie until I send an officer for it?"

"I will," said the woman.

The general and staff rode on, and soon a camping ground was selected, and the regiments were notified that there would be a grand parade at half-past six for orders. This was unusual, and neither officers nor men could imagine what was coming. The parade was formed, however, ten columns deep, and a quarter of a mile in length. After the usual review, the assistant adjutant-general read the following:

"HEADQUARTERS, ARMY IN THE FIELD.

"*Special Order, No.* ——.

"Lieutenant Wickham, of the Indiana Cavalry, having on this day eaten every thing in Mrs. Selvidge's house, at the crossing of the Ironton and Pocahontas and Black river and Cape Girardeau roads, except one pumpkin pie, Lieutenant Wickham is hereby ordered to return with an escort of one hundred cavalry, and eat that pie also.

"U. S. GRANT,

"Brigadier-general commanding."

The attempt to evade this order was useless, and at seven o'clock the lieutenant filed out of camp with his hundred men, amid the cheers of the whole army. The escort witnessed the eating of the pie, the whole of which the lieutenant succeeded in devouring, and returned to camp.

The post of Cairo, the headquarters of the district to the command of which General Grant was now ordered, was one, from its position, of great importance to the Union cause. It commanded both the Ohio and the Upper Mississippi, and was the depot of supplies for an extensive region above, and subsequently below. Grant's command extended along the shores of the Mississippi as far as Cape Girardeau, and on the Ohio to the mouth of Green river, and included western Kentucky. That State, at this time, was trying to maintain a neutral position, favoring neither the Union nor the rebels, a position which was as absurd as it was soon found to be impossible.

The rebels were the first to cross the lines, and take possession of the important towns of Columbus and Hickman, on the Mississippi, and Bowling Green, on the Green river, all of which they fortified. General Grant was apprized of these violations of Kentucky's professed neutrality, and as they afforded him ample justification for occupying positions within the State, he quietly sent a body of troops, on the 6th of September, up the Ohio to Paducah, a town at the mouth of the Tennessee, and took possession of it at the time when the secessionists there were looking for the entry of the rebel troops, who were marching to occupy it. The rage of these enemies of the country can be better imagined than described. Rebel flags were flaunted in the faces of our troops, and they were told that they should not long retain possession of the town.

This did not, however, in the least disturb the equanimity of General Grant. He issued a proclamation to the inhabitants informing them of his reasons for taking possession of the town, and that he was prepared to defend the citizens against the enemy; and added, significantly, that he had nothing to do with opinions, but should deal only with armed rebellion, and its aiders and abettors.

On the 25th of September he dispatched a force to Smithland at the mouth of the Cumberland river, and took possession of that town also. The principal avenues through which the rebels had obtained supplies of food, clothing, arms, and ammunition, from the North, were thus effectually closed.

When General Grant was assigned to the command at Cairo, General McClernand's brigade and some other troops were added to his own brigade. Having taken possession of Paducah and Smithland, he now began to turn his attention to Columbus, Kentucky, an important position, held by the rebel Major-General Polk (a former bishop of the Protestant Episcopal

Church), with a force of twenty thousand men. He had nearly completed his arrangements for attacking this post, when the Government ordered him to send five of his regiments to St. Louis. This left him too weak to make the attack with any hope of success.

On the 16th of October, General Grant, having learned that the rebel General Jeff. Thompson was approaching Pilot Knob, Missouri, and evidently purposing an extensive raid through southeastern Missouri, ordered fifteen hundred men, under Colonel Plummer, then stationed at Cape Girardeau, to move towards Fredericktown, Missouri, by way of Jackson and Dallas, forming a junction at the latter place with Colonel Carlin, who had been ordered to move with three thousand men from another point, and, pursuing Thompson, to defeat and rout his force. The expeditions were successful. Thompson was found on the 21st of October, not far from Dallas, on the Greenville road, and, after an action of two and a half hours, defeated and routed with very heavy loss. Colonel Plummer captured in this engagement forty-two prisoners and one twelve-pounder.

By this expedition, General Grant ascertained the position and strength of Jeff. Thompson's forces, and learned also that the rebels were concentrating a considerable force at Belmont, Missouri, nearly opposite Columbus, Kentucky, with a view to blockade the Mississippi river, and to move speedily upon his position at Cairo. Having received orders to that effect from his superior officers, General Grant resolved to break up this camp, although aware that the rebels could be reinforced to almost any extent from Columbus, Kentucky.

On the evening of the 6th of November, General Grant embarked two brigades, in all about two thousand eight hundred and fifty men, under his own and General McClernand's command, on board river steamers, and moved down the Missis-

sippi. He had previously detached small bodies of troops to threaten Columbus from different directions, and to deceive the rebels as to his intentions. The ruse was successful, and the force which he commanded in person reached the vicinity of Belmont, and landed before the enemy had comprehended their intention. The Union troops, disembarking with great promptness, marched rapidly towards the rebel camp, a distance of about two and a half miles, and, forcing their way through a dense abatis and other obstructions, charged through the camp, capturing their camp equipage, artillery, and small-arms, and burned the tents, blankets, etc. They also took a large number of prisoners. The rebel force at the camp was not far from 4000, but General Polk, learning of the attack, sent over as reinforcements eight regiments, or somewhat more than 4000 more troops, under the command of Generals Pillow and Cheatham, and finally crossed the river himself and took command. General Grant having accomplished all, and more than he expected, and being aware that Belmont was covered by the batteries at Columbus, and that heavy reinforcements could be readily sent from thence, made no attempt to hold the position, but withdrew in good order. On their way to their transports, the Union troops were confronted by the fresh rebel force under Polk's command, and a severe battle ensued, during which a considerable number of the rebel prisoners made their escape; and there were heavy losses in killed and wounded on both sides, the Union loss amounting to nearly one hundred killed, and four hundred or five hundred wounded and missing, the larger part of whom were prisoners. What was the exact rebel loss has never transpired, but it is known to have been larger than this, the number of prisoners alone exceeding the total Union loss. The Union troops at length succeeded in reaching their transports and re-embarking, under the protection of the

gunboats Tyler and Lexington, which had convoyed them, bringing with them two cannon which they had captured, and spiking two others, which they were obliged to abandon.

On the 20th of December, General Halleck, who was then in command of the western department, reorganized the districts of his command, and enlarged the district of Cairo, including in it all the southern portion of Illinois, all of Kentucky west of the Cumberland river, and the southern counties of Missouri, and appointed Brigadier-General Grant commander of the new district. The large numbers of troops newly mustered in, which were pouring into the district, kept the commander and his subordinate officers very busy for five or six weeks in organizing, training, and distributing them to the points where their services were required. Desirous of testing the capacity and endurance of his raw troops, for the severe work which was before them, Brigadier-General Grant made, on the 14th of January, 1862, a reconnoissance in force into southeastern Missouri, which proved successful in all respects. He next, while keeping up a feint of attacking Columbus, Kentucky, prepared to co-operate with the gunboat flotilla, under the command of Flag Officer A. H. Foote, in an attack upon the two rebel forts on the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, Forts Henry and Donelson. This attack was first suggested by that able officer, General Charles F. Smith, who died shortly after the battle of Shiloh, but it was pressed upon General Halleck, then in command of the Department of the Mississippi, by General Grant, with such pertinacity and earnestness, that it was finally ordered by that officer. The attack on Fort Henry, a small but strong work on the Tennessee river, was first in the order of time, and General Grant's part in it was delayed by the condition of the roads so much that General Tilghman, who was in command had time to send off most of his troops to Fort Donelson, and surrendered

the remainder to Flag-officer Foote after a brief action, before General Grant reached the immediate vicinity of the fort.

Grant proceeded immediately to attack the much more considerable fortress of Donelson, on the Cumberland, which here approaches within a few miles of the Tennessee. This fortress had a garrison of fifteen or sixteen thousand rebel troops, and was not a remarkably strong work, though from its position it was somewhat difficult to carry by assault. Grant had about 16,000 troops with him, most of whom had not been in any action, and the number was insufficient to invest so large a fort properly. He was reluctant, however, to await the coming of the gunboats, which had carried off the glory at Fort Henry, and hence commenced operations at once, and carried some of the outworks. The gunboats came up on the morning of the 14th (the Carondelet having arrived the previous day, and made a short assault, but without particular result), and went into action, while an attack was made by the troops on the land-side. Unfortunately, the best gunboats were soon disabled, and Flag-officer Foote himself wounded, and they were compelled to withdraw; and the land attack was not simultaneous, or forcibly delivered. The assault upon, or siege of a fort, was new business to the national troops, and their commander had had but little experience in it; but he resolved to besiege the enemy. The next morning, however, before the arrangements for the siege were fully completed, the rebels made a sortie, broke the Union line, and captured two batteries of artillery. The Union troops rallied, and retook most of their guns; but the conflict was of uncertain issue, and could have been easily turned in favor of either side, when General Grant, who had been coolly looking on, ordered General Charles F. Smith's division to charge the enemy. The order was obeyed with great spirit by the veteran officer, and General Grant followed

it by ordering up Lew. Wallace's division, which had broken in the morning, but which now charged bravely at the other end of the line. These divisions gained a position within the outer lines of the fort; and Generals Pillow and Floyd, who were the senior rebel generals in command, were convinced that the fort would be captured, and insisted on making their escape. General Buckner protested, but in vain. They fled before daylight, taking a few troops with them; and Buckner, who had been at West Point with Grant, sent a flag of truce, on the morning of February 16th, to the Union headquarters, asking for an armistice, and the appointment of commissioners to agree upon terms of capitulation. Grant's answer has become historic, as it deserved. It was:—"No terms, other than unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works." This brought the haughty Buckner to terms, and though protesting against "the ungenerous and unchivalrous terms," he surrendered at once; and 14,623 prisoners, and a large amount of materials of war, were delivered over to the Union general. This success was due mainly to three causes—the superior fighting qualities of Grant's force, though raw troops; the calmness and coolness of the general himself, which enabled him to discern the favorable moment for a bold and decisive stroke when the conflict was evenly poised; and the cowardice and weakness of the rebel generals. As a siege, or a systematic action for the reduction of a fort, it would not bear criticism; and we doubt not the general himself is as fully aware of this, and would now criticise it as severely as any one else.

After the capture of Donelson, and the occupation of Clarksville and Nashville by Buell's forces, General Grant came near falling into disfavor with General Halleck for trespassing upon General Buell's command. He was however speedily forgiven,

and sent forward to the vicinity of Corinth, Mississippi, to select a camp for his army, and bring it up to a suitable point for giving battle to the rebels. There can be no question that Corinth should have been the place selected, and that, for two or three weeks, it might have been seized and held without difficulty. Failing in this, through manifold delays, the camp should have been on the north bank of the Tennessee. Instead of this, by some blunder it was located near the south bank of the river, at Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh Church, and the troops as they came up were allowed to choose their locations very much as they pleased; and though they were less than twenty miles from the enemy's camp, no patrols or pickets were maintained in the direction of the enemy, nor any breastworks erected; and all was ease and unconcern. General Grant's headquarters were at Savannah, six miles below, and the troops as they arrived were sent forward. Meantime, the rebels were at Corinth, under the command of the ablest general of their army, General Albert Sydney Johnston, and, having accumulated a large force, were ready to take the offensive. Grant had been promoted to be major-general of volunteers, dating from February 16th, 1862, the day of the surrender of Fort Donelson, and had been in command of the district of West Tennessee from March 5th; but he seems not to have had any prevision of the magnitude of the coming battles, if indeed his easy victory at Fort Donelson, had not inspired him with a doubt whether there would be a battle at all. He evidently did not consider it imminent, for he had sent word to Buell that he need not hasten. It was to this picturesque, but decidedly unmilitary collection of camps, that the rebel general, A. S. Johnston, one of the ablest soldiers of the present century, was approaching, with a force of over 40,000 men, on the 2d of April, 1862, and anticipating, as he had a right to

do, an easy victory. The heavy rain and deep mud delayed him for three days within six or eight miles of the Union camp, but no one discovered his approach. On the morning of the 6th of April he attacked Prentiss's division; and though they made a gallant resistance, for men utterly surprised, they were soon broken, and many of them taken prisoners. Sherman's division held their ground firmly for a time, and finally, by falling back a short distance, obtained a better position, from which they were only partially pushed back during the day. Hurlburt's and W. H. L. Wallace's divisions were partially broken, but fought sturdily, yet despairingly, through the day. The fugitives and deserters were numerous, and the whole force was driven back for nearly two and a half miles, till they only occupied about half a mile on the river bank. The outlook seemed a gloomy one, but the occasion was one which developed all the great qualities of Grant. On the field from ten o'clock, A. M., directing, with the utmost coolness and imperturbability, the movements of the troops—ordering the gathering of the scattered artillery, and massing it where it could be used most effectually upon the enemy—availing himself of the gunboats as soon as possible, to protect by their fire the position of his troops—noticing every thing that was transpiring, and yet to all human appearance the calmest and most self-possessed man on the field—his conduct during the battle merits only the highest praise. Toward the close of the day, an officer said to him, "Does not the prospect begin to look gloomy?" "Not at all," was his quiet reply; "they can't force our lines around these batteries to-night—it is too late. Delay counts every thing with us. To-morrow we shall attack them with fresh troops, and drive them, of course!" He was right. The enemy, exhausted, and suffering from the heavy fire of the batteries and gunboats, could not dislodge them that

night; and during the night Lew. Wallace's division crossed the river, and Buell came up ready to cross. The contest of the next day, April 7th, though a sharp one, was in favor of the Union troops from the beginning, and by a little after noon the rebels, who had lost their commanding general the day before, were in full retreat.

The losses were about equal, and amounted in both armies, in killed, wounded, missing, and prisoners, to nearly 30,000. Grant's army held their position, and the rebels fell back; the former were therefore entitled to claim it as a victory, but it was a costly one. General Halleck now took the field in person, and under the pretence of making Grant his second in command, virtually took all command from him. This led to a coolness between the two, and Grant was for a time greatly depressed in spirits. He took part in the siege of Corinth, but was constantly hampered by the dilatoriness of his chief. After General Halleck was called to Washington as general-in-chief, Grant was in command of the Army of the Tennessee, but was unable to do much until September, Bragg and Buell being engaged in the race into Kentucky and back. He planned, however, the movements which resulted in the battle of Iuka, September 19, where he commanded in person; and in the battles of Corinth, October 3d and 4th, which were fought by General Rosecrans; and in the battle of the Hatchie, October 5th, which was under his immediate direction. In the autumn he made his headquarters in Memphis, where he soon, by his stringent and decided orders, changed that state of affairs, which had led the rebels to say, that Memphis was more valuable to them in Union hands than in those of their own people.

The popular clamor throughout the country, and particularly in the West, was for the opening of the Mississippi. Vicksburg on the north, and Port Hudson on the south, blockaded all

transit up or down this great river, so long the free channel of western produce and traffic. The efforts which had been made to break through these obstructions since the war commenced, had all failed, from the inherent strength of the fortifications, the difficulty of assailing them effectually in front, and the strength of their garrisons. General Grant had turned his attention to the solution of this great problem, almost as soon as the command of the Department of the Tennessee was assigned to him, in October, 1862. He was aware of the formidable character of the fortifications of Vicksburg, and that they had been, during 1862, strengthened by every method and device known to engineering skill. For ten miles and more, the eastern shore of the Mississippi, above and below the city, as well as all the adjacent heights, Chickasaw Bluffs, Walnut Bluffs, Haines' Bluff, and the shores of the Yazoo, were covered with fortifications, and the rear of the city also. At many points, these stood tier above tier, and were capable of pouring a concentrated fire upon any object in the river, which it seemed as if nothing built by human hands could resist. His first plan was to distribute his stores and supplies along the Mississippi Central railroad, and then moving rapidly down that road, assault and carry Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, and march thence swiftly upon the rear of Vicksburg, sending General W. T. Sherman from Memphis, with a considerable force to demonstrate simultaneously on Chickasaw Bluffs, at the northwest of the city.

This plan, which seemed the most feasible one, was defeated by the cowardice and treachery of Colonel Murphy, who, with a force of 1,000 men, was in command at Holly Springs, Mississippi, Grant's main depot of supplies, and surrendered without attempting any defence, on the 20th of December, 1862, to a rebel force slightly larger than his own. The rebels hastily

destroyed the supplies, valued at $4,000,000, and evacuated the place. But Grant could not go on with his expedition, and unfortunately he was unable to apprise General Sherman, and prevent his departure; and after a succession of disastrous assaults upon the bluffs, finding that General Grant had failed to come to time, that general was obliged to withdraw with heavy losses. But Grant was not the man to give up an enterprise on which he had set his heart, in consequence of a single repulse. Renewing his stock of supplies, he next turned his attention to some plan, as yet he hardly knew what, for carrying the fortress, from the front. He moved his army to Young's Point, Louisiana, a short distance above Vicksburg. He soon found that there was no hope of reaching the rear of the city by a movement from the east bank of the Mississippi above it. A line of hills admirably adapted, and as admirably improved for defence, stretched from Vicksburg to Haines' Bluff, on the Yazoo, twelve miles above the entrance of that stream into the Mississippi. The land in front of these hills is a deep marsh, neither land nor water. There remained then but two courses, either to enter the Yazoo above Haines' Bluff, and coming down to the east of that fortified point, attack the city in rear, or finding some mode of passing or evading the batteries on the Mississippi, land some distance below, and approach it from the south. There was also a faint hope that by completing a canal, begun the previous summer, across the neck of land formed by the bend of the Mississippi, and thus creating a new channel for that river, the Union vessels might be able to pass below the city, but the fact that the lower end of the canal was exposed to the fire of some of the heaviest batteries, made this project less feasible, and the flood destroyed their works, and partially filled the canal with silt and mud.

The attempts to gain the rear of the city by way of the Yazoo

were equally unsuccessful, both through the Old Yazoo Pass, and subsequently by a more circuitous route through Steele's Bayou, Black Bayou, Dutch creek, Deer creek, Rolling Fork and Sunflower river; the rebels having planted earthworks and batteries at such points as to prevent progress by either.

Turning his attention then to the methods of reaching the Mississippi below Vicksburg, two routes were attempted on the west side of the river and both failed; one was by Lake Providence and the Tensas river, a tortuous route and only practicable for vessels of light draft; the other by way of certain Louisiana bayous, through which in flood time it was possible to reach the Tensas, Red, and Mississippi rivers. Before the vessels could reach their destination, the water fell, and even the steamers of lightest draught could not get through. A small quantity of supplies was forwarded by the Lake Providence route, but nothing more. General Grant now determined to march his troops by land down the west side of the river as soon as the roads should be sufficiently dry. But it was necessary that a part of the gunboats and iron clads should be below Vicksburg, both in order to ferry the troops across the river and to engage the batteries at Grand Gulf, and a considerable amount of supplies must also be sent down by transports. These must all run past the terrible batteries of Vicksburg.

Admiral Porter undertook this heroic and daring expedition, and conducted it successfully, running past the batteries with five or six gunboats and sixteen or eighteen transports, in two divisions, on different nights. Two of the transports were burned, but none of the gunboats were seriously injured.

The overland march of the troops occupied thirty days, in traversing a distance of seventy miles, to Hard Times, a hamlet of Louisiana nearly opposite Grand Gulf. The squadron were ready and attacked Grand Gulf, but could not silence its bat-

teries. That night both the squadron and transports ran past the batteries, and the troops marched ten miles farther, and were ferried over to Bruinsburg and marched rapidly from this point north-eastward toward Port Gibson. The thirteenth and seventeenth corps encountered a considerable force of the enemy, whom they defeated after a sharp battle, and moved on to and across Bayou Pierre. The next day it was ascertained that Grand Gulf, which had been flanked by this movement, had been evacuated, and General Grant repaired thither with a small escort, and made arrangements to make it his base of supplies for a time. These arrangements occupied nearly a week. By his orders, as nearly as possible simultaneously with the landing of the two corps at Bruinsburg, General Sherman had made a strong demonstration upon Haines' Bluff and the Yazoo, and had thus attracted the attention of the rebels toward that quarter, where they believed the entire Union army were concentrated, and prevented them from opposing their landing below.

This being accomplished, Sherman's troops made all speed in marching to the rendezvous on the river, where the transports were in waiting to take them over to Grand Gulf.

Before leaving Young's Point, General Grant had also ordered an expedition by a competent cavalry force, under the command of Colonel, now General Benjamin H. Grierson, to start from Lagrange, at the junction of the Mississippi Central and Memphis and Charleston railroads, to follow the lines of the Mobile and Ohio and Mississippi Central railroads, and destroy as much of these, and the Meridian and Jackson railroad, as possible,—capturing and destroying also all stores, ammunition, locomotives, and railroad cars possible, in their route. This expedition was thoroughly successful, and reached Baton Rouge on the 1st of May, at the time Grant was fighting the battle of Port Gibson. Other raids were ordered about the same time

from Middle Tennessee, which aided in breaking up the railroad communications and frustrating the plans of the rebels.

Our space does not allow us to go into details of the subsequent masterly movements by which, while apparently threatening an immediate attack on Vicksburg from the south, the garrison there, under the command of General Pemberton, were prevented from forming a junction with General J. E. Johnston's troops, then in the vicinity of Jackson, nor of the battle of Raymond, the capture of Jackson, and the destruction of the property and manufactories of the rebel Government there; the rapid march westward, the severe battles of Champion Hill and of Black River bridge, and the eminently skilful management of the corps of Generals Sherman and McPherson. Suffice it to say, that General Grant interposed his army between the forces of Johnston and Pemberton, drove the former, broken and routed, northward, and compelled the latter to put himself and his defeated army as soon as possible within the defences of Vicksburg; and on the 18th the Union army sat down before Vicksburg, having completely invested it on the land side and opened communication with their squadron and transports by way of Walnut Bluffs, above the river. On the 19th of May, and again on the 22d, General Grant ordered assaults upon the beleaguered city, neither of which were successful, except in gaining some ground and expediting the subsequent regular approaches. The army now became satisfied that the stronghold could only be captured by a systematic siege, and General Grant accordingly took all precautions to make that siege effective, and to prevent the rebel General Johnston from approaching with sufficient force to raise the siege. Day by day the parallels were brought nearer and nearer, and finally came so near that the rebels could not use their cannon, while the Union artillery from the adjacent hills, and from the squadron, constantly show-

ered their iron hail upon the devoted city. The inhabitants and the rebel army dug caves in the bluffs, and endeavored to shelter themselves from the fiery storm, but these were often penetrated by the shells from the batteries, or blown up in the explosion of the forts. At length, on the third of July, General Grant was prepared to order an assault, which could not have failed of success, when overtures were made for a surrender, and the city was delivered into the hands of the Union army on the 4th of July, 1863.

It is stated that at the interview between General Grant and General Pemberton, after shaking hands, and a short silence, General Pemberton said:

"General Grant, I meet you in order to arrange terms for the capitulation of the city of Vicksburg and its garrison. What terms do you demand?"

"*Unconditional surrender*," replied General Grant.

"Unconditional surrender!" said Pemberton. "Never, so long as I have a man left me! I will fight rather."

"*Then, sir, you can continue the defence*," replied Grant. "*My army has never been in a better condition for the prosecution of the siege.*"

During this conversation, General Pemberton was greatly agitated, trembling with emotion from head to foot, while Grant was as calm and imperturbable as a May morning. After a somewhat protracted interview, during which General Grant, in consideration of the courage and tenacity of the garrison, explained the terms he was disposed to allow to them on their unconditional surrender, the two generals separated, an armistice having been declared till morning, when the question of surrender was to be finally determined. The same evening General Grant transmitted to General Pemberton, in writing, the propositions he had made during the afternoon for the disposal of the garri-

son, should they surrender. These terms were very liberal, far more so than those usually acceded to a conquered garrison.

The rebel loss in this campaign had been very great, larger than has often been experienced in the campaigns of modern times, and utterly without precedent in the previous history of this continent. The number of prisoners captured by the Union troops, from the landing at Bruinsburg to, and including the surrender of Vicksburg, was 34,620, including one lieutenant-general and nineteen major and brigadier-generals; and 11,800 men were killed, wounded, or deserters. There were also among the spoils of the campaign two hundred and eleven field-pieces, ninety siege guns, and 45,000 small arms. The Union losses had been 943 killed, 7,095 wounded, and 537 missing, making a total of casualties of 8,575, and of the wounded, nearly one half returned to duty within a month.

Having disposed of his prisoners at Vicksburg, General Grant dispatched General Sherman with an adequate force to Jackson, to defeat and break up Johnston's army, and destroy the rebel stores collected there, in both which enterprises he was successful.

During the long period of two and a quarter years since he had entered the army, General Grant had never sought or received a day's furlough. But after this great victory, and while the thanks of the President, the Cabinet, Congress, and the people, were lavished upon him without stint, he sought for a few days' rest with his family, and received it. His stay with them was brief, and he returned to his duties, descending the Mississippi—now, thanks to his skilful generalship, open to the navigation of all nations, from its mouth to the falls of St. Anthony—to New Orleans, to confer with General Banks relative to the operations of the autumn. While here, on the 4th of Septem-

ber, he was seriously injured by being thrown from his horse while reviewing the troops of General Banks' department.

From these injuries he did not recover sufficiently to take the field, till late in October. Meantime, there had been hard fighting, as well as weary marches, and severe privations endured by the Army of the Cumberland. General Rosecrans, moving forward in June, had driven General Bragg, not without considerable fighting, from Tullahoma, and through southern Tennessee, into and out of Chattanooga, and, throwing a small garrison into that town, had marched southward to intercept Bragg's further retreat, and compel him to fight. Bragg, meantime, strongly reinforced from the Army of Northern Virginia, had joined battle with him in the valley of Chickamauga creek, where on the 19th and 20th of September, 1862, was fought one of the great actions of the war. Though not absolutely defeated, Rosecrans had found it necessary to fall back to Chattanooga, which he held, though closely beleaguered by Bragg, who had compelled him to relinquish some of his most important communications, and drag his supplies over sixty miles of the worst mountain roads in the southwest. This measure was but temporary, however, and was about to be remedied, when he was relieved of the command, to which General Thomas was assigned. General Sherman, now in the command of the Army of the Tennessee, was ordered up to his support, and two corps sent from the Army of the Potomac, under Generals Hooker and Howard. This magnificent army was placed under General Grant's command, as the Military Division of the Mississippi. On Grant's arrival at Chattanooga, his first care was to open communications, and provide for full supplies for his soldiers, who had been on half rations for some time. Bragg, at this time, sent Longstreet's corps to Knoxville, to drive Burnside from east Tennessee, and unaware of Grant's

large reinforcements, he proved true to his name, and on the 21st of November, 1863, sent this arrogant message to General Grant by flag of truce:

"Humanity would dictate the removal of all non-combatants from Chattanooga, as I am about to shell the city."

General Grant made no reply to the threat at the moment, but his answer was speedily returned, and proved so effectual, that Bragg gave up all idea of "shelling the city" from that time forward.

Sherman's Army of the Tennessee had been coming into the city and its vicinity, since the 15th of November, by roads which led to the rear, and hence had not been observed by Bragg's lookout; and on the evening of the 23d of November, lay concealed above Chattanooga, on the north bank, and ready for the crossing. Then followed that admirably planned combination of movements which reflected so much skill on Grant's strategic ability. General Thomas, with the Army of the Cumberland, marched out with all the order and stateliness of a grand review, and while the enemy looked on and wondered, seized Orchard Knob, their most advanced position, held and fortified it. Hooker, with his eastern troops, marching along the western flank of Lookout Mountain, suddenly climbed its steep sides, and rising from one elevation to another, drove the enemy up and over the crest of the mountain—the batteries echoing and reverberating among the mountains till, with the valleys below obscured by clouds and smoke, which did not rise to his own lofty position, he fought that battle above the clouds which has been so greatly celebrated; and Sherman advancing, destroyed the railway, and captured, with but slight effort, the most advanced post of the enemy at the northeast. Such was the work of November 24th; that of November 25th was more serious, but crowned with perfect success. Hooker, descending

from the eastern and less precipitous slope of Lookout Mountain, some distance below Chattanooga, pursued the flying rebels up to the crest of Mission Ridge, and drove them from Fort Bragg, the southernmost of their forts crossing the Ridge. Sherman, by persistent pounding and repeated assaults upon Fort Buckner, the northernmost of their forts, had succeeded in drawing a considerable portion of the garrison of the central fort, Fort Breckinridge, to the support of the Fort Buckner garrison, and when, at a little past three o'clock P. M., the signal guns sounded from Fort Wood, on Orchard Knob, the picked men of the Army of the Cumberland sprang to arms, climbed the precipitous sides of Mission Ridge, under a most terrific fire, swept through Fort Breckinridge, and drove the foe, pell mell, down the farther slope of the Ridge, and Sherman's men possessed themselves quietly of the fort, against which they had flung themselves so fiercely all day. No more brilliant action occurred during the war; and when it was followed by a prompt pursuit of the enemy, and by sending Sherman with his wearied, but always obedient and victorious troops, to Knoxville, to compel Longstreet to raise the siege of that town, and to drive him among the mountains of western Virginia in midwinter, the admiration of the nation for Grant knew no bounds. The President but expressed the popular feeling, when he sent to the successful general the following telegraphic dispatch:

"WASHINGTON, DEC. 8, 1863.

"MAJOR-GENERAL GRANT:

"Understanding that your lodgment at Chattanooga and Knoxville is now secure, I wish to tender you, and all under your command, my more than thanks—my profoundest gratitude—for the skill, courage, and perseverance with which you and they, over so great difficulties, have effected that important object. God bless you all!"

"A. LINCOLN."

On the 17th of December, 1863, Congress by joint resolution tendered him the national gratitude and provided for the preparation of a gold medal with suitable emblems, devices, and inscriptions, to be presented to him in token of the national sense of his services. The Legislatures of the loyal States vied with each other in their resolutions of thanks and in their grants of funds, etc., while many private individuals added their gifts. The Senate at the beginning of its session had confirmed, almost by acclamation, the rank of major-general in the regular army which had been bestowed upon him by the President in the summer, his commission dating from July 4, 1863.

The recipient of these numerous honors seemed in no wise elated by them; he was as simple and unpretending in his manners, as reticent on all political topics, and as averse to any thing looking like display, as when he was a farmer at St. Louis, or a clerk at Galena.

There was yet much to be done to bring his army at Chattanooga into good condition. His communications with his bases at Nashville and Louisville must be repaired and strengthened, his men better fed, supplies accumulated at Chattanooga and Nashville, for the campaigns in the not distant future in Georgia. In concert with his tried friend and trusty lieutenant, Sherman, he planned an expedition into the heart of the enemy's territory at Meridian, Missi-sippi, to be met by one from Memphis, down the Mobile and Ohio railroad, which, by thoroughly breaking their lines of communication, should cripple their movements in the future, and during the months of January, while General Sherman was completing the details of this enterprise, he visited and inspected in person all the posts and stations of his widely extended command. The Meridian expedition was but a partial success, owing to the failure of the cavalry portion of

it to co-operate effectively; but it seriously embarrassed the rebels in their subsequent operations.

While it was in progress, Major-General Grant was summoned to Washington, where he was called to assume new and still higher responsibilities. Congress had resolved to revive the grade of lieutenant-general, which had been borne as a full rank only by General Washington (General Scott's title being only by brevet); and a law to that effect having been passed, the President at once conferred the rank upon Major-General Grant and the Senate confirmed it. The commission bore the date of March 2d, 1864, and on the 9th of that month the President delivered it to him in person, accompanied by a brief address expressive of his own pleasure in doing him such an honor, and a word of monition as to the great responsibilities which it would devolve upon him. On the 12th of March, the President, by official order, invested the lieutenant-general with the command of the armies of the United States; at the same time appointing, at Lieutenant-General Grant's instance, Major-General W. T. Sherman, commander of the Military Division of the Mississippi; General McPherson, commander of the Army of the Tennessee, and General Halleck, hitherto general in chief, chief of staff of the army, to reside in Washington.

The subsequent seven or eight weeks were busy ones for General Grant. The various commands of the army were to be visited, a simultaneous campaign for the two armies arranged with General Sherman, supplies collected and troops accumulated to a far greater extent than at any previous time; the army corps to be strengthened and some of them reorganized, and all preparations made for a campaign which should end only with the war. The armies of the eastern division, which were to operate against the rebel General Lee, he proposed to command in person; those of the west were to be directed by Major

General Sherman. His own especial command, as reorganized under his supervision. consisted of; *first*, the army of the Potomac, numbering in all 130,000 men, though at the commencement of the campaign, a part were not yet present; this was commanded by General George G. Meade, an able and experienced officer, and its corps commanders were Hancock, Warren, Sedgwick, and Burnside. It confronted Lee's army from the north side of the Rapidan. *Second*, the army of the James, consisting of about 30,000 troops, under the command of Major-General Butler, with General Gillmore as a subordinate; this was in a position to strike either at Richmond or Petersburg. *Third*, the army of the Shenandoah, under the command of Major-General Franz Sigel, then about 17,000 strong, but subsequently increased by the addition of the nineteenth army corps, from the Department of the Gulf. Besides these there was a strong cavalry force, under the command of the young but efficient general, Philip H. Sheridan. The forward movement was made on the 4th of May, 1864, and resulted in the bloody but indecisive battles of the Wilderness, May 5 and 6, 1864, a forward movement by the left flank to Spottsylvania, and a series of battles there, May 8–21, hardly more decisive, and not less bloody than the preceding; another flank movement to and across the North Anna, and two days of hard fighting, May 21–25; a recrossing of the North Anna, a flanking of the enemy and crossing of the Pamunkey, and the battle of Tolopotomoy, May 28 and 29, and of Bethesda church, May 30. Another attempt to surprise the enemy by a flank movement, brought the two armies face to face at Cold Harbor, one of the battle grounds of 1862, but this time with the positions of the two armies reversed.

Finding himself unable to gain the flank of Lee's army—that general moving on interior and shorter lines, and though with

an inferior force, being fully his equal in military strategy—Lieutenant-General Grant now took the resolution of throwing the Army of the Potomac south of the James, and assailing Petersburg and Richmond from that direction. His losses in this month of battles had been frightful, nearly 60,000 men being *hors du combat*, either among the slain, wounded, or prisoners. He had inflicted heavy losses on the enemy, but they were not equal to his own, as their numbers were materially less; but, with that pertinacity and resolution which is so striking an element of his character, he would not relax his efforts in the least, and was determined to pound away upon his foes till he had ground them to powder. Crossing the James successfully, he commenced a series of assaults on Petersburg, but without any considerable success. The construction of siege lines around the city, to the east and south; the mining of one of its forts; demonstrations alternately toward the Weldon and the Southside railroads, followed; but with not much better result. His cavalry, under Sheridan, Wilson, and Kautz, were kept actively employed in raids upon the enemy's lines of communication. The army of the Shenandoah had made lamentable failures under Sigel and Hunter, and their adversary, Early, had descended into Maryland, threatened Baltimore and Washington, and only been driven from the vicinity of the capital, by the hurried advance of troops from the Army of the Potomac and the Department of the Gulf. The Government, always in terror of attacks upon the capital, clamored loudly for protection; but while General Grant would not farther weaken his force around Petersburg, he sent a man to command the Department of the Shenandoah, who was himself worth an army corps. General Sheridan, in a succession of well-planned and hard-fought battles, disposed of General Early, and subsequently raided through the whole Shenandoah and

Luray valleys, laying them desolate, for the aid, shelter and support they had given to the bands of guerrillas. The autumn and early winter was consumed in attempts to cut the lines of communication from the west and southwest of Petersburg and Richmond, by which the rebel armies were supplied. The Virginia and Tennessee road was destroyed by Gillem and Stoneman; the Manassas and Lynchburg roads, the James River canal and the slackwater navigation broken up, and the supplies in the warehouses destroyed by Sheridan; and at each effort along Hatcher's Run some ground was gained, and a nearer approach made to the only artery of communication which remained, the Southside railroad. This was accomplished at a heavy cost of life, but there was an advance which betokened the speedy coming of the end.

Meantime, Admiral Farragut had, in the grandest of naval battles, defeated the squadron and captured the forts which defended Mobile Bay; Sherman had, after a campaign of great severity, captured Atlanta, and partially destroyed it—had moved onward, with his vast columns, to the sea—had captured Savannah—and, turning northward, had swept, as with the besom of destruction, South Carolina, compelling the surrender of Charleston, and the other principal towns of South and North Carolina; the forts which had protected the harbor of Wilmington, North Carolina, had succumbed, on a second attack, to the prowess of Admiral Porter and General Terry—and Wilmington itself had fallen before Terry and Schofield; General Thomas had driven Hood out of Tennessee, with such terrible slaughter that he could not assemble another army.

All things portended the speedy collapse of this formidable rebellion. Grant now moved forward; and after some hard fighting, Sheridan, under his direction, carried the strong position of Five Forks, and drove those of the enemy who were

not slain or captured, westward, where they could not aid in continuing the defence of Lee's already weakened lines. April 2d, 1865, the line of the Southside railroad was thoroughly broken; April 3d, the cities of Petersburg and Richmond were evacuated and surrendered. The flying rebel army, bereft of supplies, hungry and despairing, were pursued unremittingly; and on the 9th of April, General Lee surrendered to General Grant the remnant of the Army of Virginia. Then came the entrance into Richmond; the President's visit there; and the sad scene of the assassination of the President, whose fate General Grant only escaped by the providence of God, which called him suddenly to Philadelphia that night. The news of the proposed terms of capitulation offered to Johnston by General Sherman, coming just at this juncture, roused, on the part of the Government, such strong disapproval, that General Grant immediately went to Raleigh, and by wise and adroit management saved his friend from disgrace, and the country from any evils which might have resulted from Sherman's terms.

The speedy end of the war ensued, and General Grant's duties thenceforward were rather administrative than military. He made a tour through the Southern States in 1865, and subseqently flying visits to the northern cities. The gratitude of the people for his eminent services followed him. A residence was presented to him at Galena, another in Philadelphia, and another still in Washington. The merchants of New York raised a hundred thousand dollars as an indication of their sense of his great services to the country. On the 25th of July, 1866, Congress created the grade of full general, hitherto unknown to our country, and stipulating that it should lapse after his death or resignation of it, conferred it upon him. In the summer of 1866, by express command of the President, General Grant ac-

companied him in his western tour; but he sought in vain to commit him to any approval of his cause and policy. Subsequently, in August, 1867, when Mr. Johnson's long and ill-disguised hatred of the Secretary of War broke out into hostility, and he demanded Mr. Stanton's resignation, on the refusal of that officer to resign, Mr. Johnson suspended him from office and appointed General Grant Secretary *ad interim*. The general accepted the position, managed the office wisely and well, and when the Senate decided that Mr. Stanton's removal was unjustifiable, surrendered it at once to the Secretary. This act excited Mr. Johnson's anger, and he sought, in a series of letters, but with his usual ill-success, to fasten upon the general charges of insincerity, inveracity, and treachery.

Having returned to the duties of his office as the Commanding General of the Armies of the United States, General Grant took no farther part in politics, and neither by word nor act showed any disposition to take sides in the impeachment trial of the President (Johnson) which followed. At the National Convention of the Republican party, held in Chicago, May 20th—22d, 1868, General Grant was nominated for the Presidency, and Hon. Schuyler Colfax for the Vice-Presidency. His nomination was almost by acclamation. As he had not previously been in any way active as a politician, and little was known definitely of his political views, we give for purposes of reference the platform adopted by the convention which nominated him, and his letter of acceptance.*

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* REPUBLICAN PLATFORM.

The National Republican Party of the United States, assembled in National Convention in the City of Chicago, on the 21st day of May, 1868, *make the following Declaration of Principles.*

I. We congratulate the country on the assured success of the Reconstruction policy of Congress, as evinced by the adoption, in the majority of the States lately in rebellion, of Constitutions securing Equal Civil and

The Presidential campaign was less exciting than usual, and it was a foregone conclusion, long before the day of election, that Grant and Colfax would be elected. The elections took place November 3d, 1868, and the Republican candidates received 214 electoral votes, against 80 given to Messrs. Seymour and Blair, thus having a clear majority of 134 electoral votes. On the popular vote General Grant's majority, though comparatively less, was still very decided. The whole number of votes

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Political Rights to all, and it is the duty of the Government to sustain those institutions and to prevent the people of such States from being remitted to a state of anarchy.

II. The guaranty by Congress of Equal Suffrage to all loyal men at the South was demanded by every consideration of public safety, of gratitude, and of justice, and must be maintained; while the question of Suffrage in all the loyal States properly belongs to the people of those States.

III. We denounce all forms of Repudiation as a national crime; and the national honor requires the payment of the public indebtedness in the uttermost good faith to all creditors at home and abroad, not only according to the letter but the spirit of the laws under which it was contracted.

IV. It is due to the Labor of the Nation that taxation should be equalized, and reduced as rapidly as the national faith will permit.

V. The National Debt, contracted, as it has been, for the preservation of the Union for all time to come, should be extended over a fair period for redemption; and it is the duty of Congress to reduce the rate of interest thereon, whenever it can be honestly done.

VI. That the best policy to diminish our burden of debt is to so improve our credit that capitalists will seek to loan us money at lower rates of interest than we now pay, and must continue to pay so long as repudiation, partial or total, open or covert, is threatened or suspected.

VII. The Government of the United States should be administered with the strictest economy; and the corruptions which have been so shamefully nursed and fostered by Andrew Johnson call loudly for radical reform.

VIII. We profoundly deplore the untimely and tragic death of Abraham Lincoln, and regret the accession to the Presidency of Andrew Johnson, who has acted treacherously to the people who elected him and the cause he was pledged to support; who has usurped high legislative and judicial functions; who has refused to execute the laws; who has used his high office to induce other officers to ignore and violate the laws; who has employed his executive powers to render insecure the property, the peace, liberty and life of the citizen; who has abused the pardoning power; who

polled was 5,716,788, of which General Grant received 3,013,188, a clear majority of 309,588, or 5·42 per cent. He was inaugurated March 4th, 1869. The new President having previously resigned his commission as General of the United States Army, Lieutenant-General William T. Sherman was on his nomination promoted to be General; and Major-General Philip H. Sheridan promoted to the vacant Lieutenant-Generalship. President Grant sent the names of his new cabinet to the Senate on

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has denounced the National Legislature as unconstitutional; who has persistently and corruptly resisted, by every means in his power, every proper attempt at the reconstruction of the States lately in rebellion: who has perverted the public patronage into an engine of wholesale corruption; and who has been justly impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors, and properly pronounced guilty thereof by the vote of thirty-five Senators.

IX. The doctrine of Great Britain and other European powers that, because a man is once a subject he is always so, must be resisted at every hazard by the United States, as a relic of feudal times, not authorized by the laws of nations, and at war with our national honor and independence. Naturalized citizens are entitled to protection in all their rights of citizenship, as though they were native-born; and no citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, must be liable to arrest and imprisonment by any foreign power for acts done or words spoken in this country; and if so arrested and imprisoned, it is the duty of the Government to interfere in his behalf.

X. Of all who were faithful in the trials of the late war, there were none entitled to more especial honor than the brave soldiers and seamen who endured the hardships of campaign and cruise, and imperiled their lives in the service of the country; the bounties and pensions provided by the laws for these brave defenders of the nation, are obligations never to be forgotten; the widows and orphans of the gallant dead are the wards of the people—a sacred legacy bequeathed to the nation's protecting care.

XI. Foreign immigration, which in the past has added so much to the wealth, development and resources and increase of power to this republic, the asylum of the oppressed of all nations, should be fostered and encouraged by a liberal and just policy.

XII. This Convention declares itself in sympathy with all oppressed peoples struggling for their rights.

Unanimously added, on motion of Gen. Schurz:

Resolved, That we highly commend the spirit of magnanimity and forbearance with which men who have served in the rebellion, but who now

the 5th of March. They were as follows: Secretary of State, E. B. Washburne of Illinois; Secretary of the Treasury, A. T. Stewart of New York; Secretary of War, John M. Schofield of New York; Secretary of the Navy, Adolphe E. Borie of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Interior, Jacob D. Cox of Ohio; Postmaster-General, John A. J. Creswell of Maryland; Attorney-General, E. Rockwood Hoar of Massachusetts.

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frankly and honestly co-operate with us in restoring the peace of the country and reconstructing the Southern State governments upon the basis of Impartial Justice and Equal Rights, are received back into the communion of the loyal people; and we favor the removal of the disqualifications and restrictions imposed upon the late Rebels in the same measure as their spirit of loyalty will direct, and as may be consistent with the safety of the loyal people.

Resolved, That we recognize the great principles laid down in the immortal Declaration of Independence, as the true foundation of democratic government; and we hail with gladness every effort toward making these principles a living reality on every inch of American soil.

In accepting the nomination, General Grant wrote the following letter:

To General Joseph R. Hawley, President National Union Republican Convention:

In formally accepting the nomination of the National Union Republican Convention of the 21st of May, inst., it seems proper that some statement of views beyond the mere acceptance of the nomination should be expressed. The proceedings of the Convention were marked with wisdom, moderation and patriotism, and I believe express the feelings of the great mass of those who sustained the country through its recent trials. I indorse the resolutions. If elected to the office of President of the United States, it will be my endeavor to administer all the laws in good faith, with economy, and with the view of giving peace, quiet and protection everywhere. In times like the present it is impossible, or at least eminently improper, to lay down a policy to be adhered to, right or wrong, through an administration of four years. New political issues, not foreseen, are constantly arising; the views of the public on old ones are constantly changing, and a purely administrative officer should always be left free to execute the will of the people. I always have respected that will, and always shall. Peace and universal prosperity—its sequence—with economy of administration, will lighten the burden of taxation, while it constantly reduces the National debt. Let us have peace.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

WASHINGTON, D. C., *May* 29, 1868. U. S. GRANT.

Here began President Grant's administration, which was not without its troubles. Mr. Stewart, being an importer, was found to be constitutionally ineligible to the office of Secretary of the Treasury. The law which made him ineligible was one enacted many years since, and a strong effort was made to have it repealed. But this proved ineffectual, and on the 11th of March the name of George S. Boutwell of Massachusetts was substituted for that of Mr. Stewart.

Mr. Washburne's appointment was purely honorary, and designed to be temporary, so that an early successor was expected. Mr. Washburne's declining health precipitated a change, and the name of Hamilton Fish was sent in as his successor. On the same date the name of John A. Rawlins, late Grant's chief of staff, was submitted as Secretary of War.

Three months later Mr. Borie, who found the duties of the Navy Department uncongenial, sent in his resignation, and on June 25th George M. Robeson of New Jersey was nominated as his successor. These changes did not place the Administration in good working order. Others took place during the year. Secretary Rawlins died on September 6th, and after an *ad interim* administration of his office by General Sherman, General Wm. W. Belknap of Iowa was appointed, November 1st, 1869. It was not until the succeeding year that the machinery of the Administration was fully adjusted and a definite policy began to be developed.

Several of the political leaders of the Republican party felt aggrieved that the President should have failed to recognize their claims to places in his Cabinet, and a marked coolness ensued. That he should have distrusted such men as advisers was quite natural. He had not been trained in their school. That he should have a strong preference for those who had grown up about him both in the army and private life, was quite as natural.

Of the former, he knew not whom to trust; of the latter, he knew precisely who were in accord with him. He deemed confidence an essential to constitutional advisement, just as it was a primary consideration in the army. That he was injudicious in some of these appointments, is possible; and he himself was subsequently satisfied that it would have been better to have selected those more familiar with their duties.

The charges of nepotism and favoritism which sprung from these two causes, the President's preference for those whom he knew best, and his neglect of the politicians, were greatly exaggerated and reiterated with undeserved bitterness by those who "had nursed their wrath to keep it warm." That he had erred in a few of these appointments even he himself now admits, but he has done, and is doing what he can to obviate these blunders of his inexperience. That he was not induced by his regard for friends or relatives to put as many bad men in office as any of his predecessors, is, we believe, susceptible of proof; and when he ascertained that he had been deceived, he took measures for the removal of the offender, however warm may have been his friendship for him. His experience and observation have taught him wisdom. He understands the prominent leaders of political affairs much better than he did in 1868-9, and he has also learned that a man may be proof against temptation in a humble position, who will fall before it in a higher one. The wisdom thus acquired is one of his best claims to future confidence.

We have never yet seen a charge made against the President that was coupled with a doubt of his personal integrity, or that discounted his patriotism. Nor have his administrative acts often betrayed a forgetfulness of that announcement in his inaugural address, so welcome to all who heard it: "I shall have no policy contrary to the wishes of the American people."

Considering the military cast of his mind, it was scarcely expected that he could, without considerable administrative schooling, grasp and successfully handle all the great measures of State. But his instincts were known to be right. The country needed a guarantee of safety and rest, rather than brilliancy and unrest. We were to garner fruits, and not break up ground for new crops. After the excitement of war a breathing time was required. The nation felt that confidence could be reposed in Grant, and it has not been disappointed.

Like other Presidents he has not been free from faults, but these he has quickly corrected. Probably the most noticeable of these was the policy of acquiring a foothold for our commerce in the Caribbean Sea, a policy as old as the country itself. The people forbade, and he hearkened promptly, and gracefully abandoned the scheme.

It has been a continual desire on his part to give to his administration the honor of a settlement of that vexatious case known popularly as the "Alabama Claims." At the outset he was surrounded by many difficulties, not the least of which was the personal enmity, amounting to estrangement, which existed between Mr. Sumner, then Chairman of the Committee of Foreign Affairs, and Secretary Fish. Without harmony between these two officials no definite results could be reached. One or the other must be disposed of. Which? became a momentous question. The Senate came to the President's relief, and Mr. Cameron was chosen Mr. Sumner's successor at the head of that important committee. Many deemed this action unwise. Mr. Sumner's personal qualifications for the position were, probably, superior to those of any other Senator, but the necessity for harmony between the Committee and the Secretary must override all other considerations. This treaty, if carried out in good faith, will be of great importance, not only for the benefits which will

accrue to the nations concerned in it, but also for the influence it will exert upon all nations, as substituting the theory of amicable settlement of national differences for the arbitrament of arms and brute force.

Another success of the administration has been the constant and rapid reduction of the national debt. The people have been released from more than $330,000,000 of this burden since March 4th, 1869, and a consequent annual saving of interest for the future to the extent of more than $20,000,000. The work of reconstruction has been well nigh completed. Every Congressional district in the United States is now represented at Washington. Severe laws have been administered cautiously, yet with a firmness which has secured harmony in sections where discord once prevailed. The taxes have been greatly reduced, the Congress just adjourned having effected a reduction amounting to over $51,000,000 annually. Economy has been enforced in every department of revenue, and defaulters have been ferreted out and brought to justice. The army and navy establishments have been reduced to a peace footing. A new and humane policy of dealing with the Indian tribes has been attempted, which secures the sanction of all philanthropists, and of the respective religious denominations, and bids fair to be far more successful than the old and corrupt method of force and chicanery.

But little has been accomplished in the way of civil service reform, for the reason that Congressmen are disinclined to give up their customary patronage; but the President has often expressed himself in favor of some method of appointment to office on the basis of such reform, and his advice has been so far regarded in many of the departments as to admit of competitive examinations and selection of the most worthy. His efforts in this direction are creditable to him, and we may well hope that

they will be continued with renewed zeal in the future, and that he may succeed in triumphing over the selfish opposition which the measure has heretofore encountered. The amnesty bill, and also the civil rights bill, failed against his wishes, though these measures, we have every reason to believe, are only postponed.

Altogether his administration has been fairly successful, and except with those whose anticipations were too exalted, such as was expected. The farmers, the mechanics, the manufacturers, the capitalists, all who are interested in the stability of public and industrial affairs, in the maintenance of our institutions, have had no occasion to repent of their choice.

The country has prospered. Our financial condition at home and abroad was never better. The Treasurer has been able to negotiate our bonds abroad without discount, and at five per cent. interest. We have had peace. In view of all this positive good, of President Grant's honesty, and sympathy with the masses, we may overlook the charges of favoritism, his distrust of politicians, who naturally hate where they cannot rule, and his alleged shortcomings.

The charge most desperately pressed against him, though with but slight attempt at proof, is that he has made vigorous efforts for his own re-election. It is perhaps desirable that there should be some change in the national constitution, which, while extending the Presidential term to six or possibly eight years, should prohibit a re-election at least till one term had intervened. This is as desirable for the incumbent of the Presidential office as for the people; for it would at once obviate the charge often unjustly made that the President was intriguing for his own re-election. As the constitution now stands it is too much to ask from human nature, that a President who is conscious of having served his country faithfully, and with fair success, should not desire a re-election; nor is this desire in itself reprehensible, un-

less accompanied, as it too often has the reputation of being, by intrigue for the accomplishment of its object. That President Grant desired a re-election was but natural; but that he has shaped his policy and distribution of offices to effect it, or attempted to do so by any corrupt means, is too foreign to his nature to be believed for a moment. That a great part of the Republican party desire his re-election is undoubtedly true, for though conventions may be packed, and their unanimity may be effected by the skilful management of political leaders, there is abundance of other evidence of that desire, wholly irrespective of these, a desire based upon a conviction that the prosperity of the country depends upon his re-election. This desire, too, is wholly irrespective of any effort on his part, or any alleged manipulations of his for the purpose of procuring it. If he is re-elected, it will be as truly as in the case of Lincoln in 1864, because the people have willed it, and not because he has set any machinery to work to accomplish that purpose.

In person President Grant is somewhat below the average height, with a tendency to corpulency; of great powers of endurance, and of uniformly good health. He is temperate, quiet, likes simple ways and simple food; abhors ostentation, can converse clearly, though not fluently, is no speech maker, preferring rather to listen. He is a great smoker, enjoys a game of billiards, and is fond of choice horses. As a friend he is firm, as an enemy he is not vindictive. Few men manifest less envy or jealousy. He bears complaint and even censure with resignation, and regards the promotion and advancement of those whom he deems worthy as paramount to all personal considerations. No man is quicker to correct abuses when he sees them, and though slow to believe an accusation against one whom he has trusted, he acts decidedly when convinced. In the ordinary acceptation of that term, he is not a man of genius. Blunders he has made, but he rarely repeats them. In one word, he

possesses a clear, well-balanced mind, every faculty of which is thoroughly practical, and such a combination is worth much more than genius.

At the National Republican Convention, held at Philadelphia, June 5th and 6th, 1872, President Grant was renominated for the Presidency, receiving the unanimous votes of all the State delegations present. At the same convention, Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, was nominated for the Vice-Presidency, receiving on the first ballot 384½ votes to 314½ for Mr. Colfax. The following platform was unanimously adopted:

THE PLATFORM.

The Republican party of the United States, assembled in National Convention in the City of Philadelphia, on the 5th and 6th days of June, 1872, again declares its faith, appeals to its history, and announces its position upon the questions before the country:

I. During eleven years of supremacy it has accepted with grand courage the solemn duties of the time. It suppressed a gigantic rebellion, emancipated four millions of slaves, decreed the equal citizenship of all, and established universal suffrage. Exhibiting unparalleled magnanimity, it criminally punished no man for political offences, and warmly welcomed all who proved their loyalty by obeying the laws and dealing justly with their neighbors. It has steadily decreased, with a firm hand, the resultant disorders of a great war, and initiated a wise policy toward the Indians. The Pacific Railroad and similar vast enterprises have been generally aided and successfully conducted; the public lands freely given to actual settlers; immigration protected and encouraged, and a full acknowledgment of the naturalized citizens' rights secured from European powers. A uniform national currency has been provided; repudiation frowned down; the national credit sustained under most extraordinary burdens, and new bonds negotiated at lower rates; the revenues have been carefully collected and honestly applied. Despite the annual large reductions of rates of taxation, the public debt has been reduced during General Grant's presidency at the rate of $100,000,000 a year. A great financial crisis has been avoided, and peace and plenty prevail throughout the land. Menacing foreign difficulties have been peacefully and honorably compromised, and the honor and the power of the nation kept in high respect throughout the world. This glorious record of the past is the party's best pledge for the future. We believe the people will not intrust the Government to any party or combination of men composed chiefly of those who have resisted every step of this beneficial progress.

II. Complete liberty and exact equality in the enjoyment of all civil, political and public rights should be established and effectually maintained throughout the Union, by efficient and appropriate State and Federal legislation. Neither the law nor its administration should admit of any discrimination in respect of citizens by reason of race, creed, color, or previous condition of servitude.

III. The recent amendments to the National Constitution should be cordially sustained, because they are right, not merely tolerated because they are law, and should be carried out according to their spirit by appropriate legislation, the enforcement of which can be safely trusted only to the party that secured those amendments.

IV. The National Government should seek to maintain an honorable peace with all nations, protecting its citizens everywhere, and sympathizing with all peoples who strive for greater liberty.

V. Any system of the Civil Service under which the subordinate positions of the Government are considered rewards for mere party zeal, is fatally demoralizing; and we, therefore, favor a reform of the system by laws which shall abolish the evils of patronage, and make honesty, efficiency and fidelity the essential qualifications for public position, without practically creating a life-tenure of office.

VI. We are opposed to further grants of the public lands to corporations and monopolies, and demand that the national domain be set apart for free homes for the people.

VII. The annual revenues, after paying the current debts, should furnish a moderate balance for the reduction of the principal, and the revenue, except so much as may be derived from a tax on tobacco and liquors, be raised by duties upon importations, the duties of which should be so adjusted as to aid in securing remunerative wages to labor, and promote the industries, growth, and prosperity of the whole country.

VIII. We hold in undying honor the soldiers and sailors whose valor saved the Union; their pensions are a sacred debt of the nation, and the widows and orphans of those who died for their country are entitled to the care of a generous and grateful people. We favor such additional legislation as will extend the bounty of the Government to all our soldiers and sailors who were honorably discharged, and who in the line of duty became disabled, without regard to the length of service or the cause of such discharge.

IX. The doctrine of Great Britain and other European powers concerning allegiance—"Once a subject always a subject"—having at last through the effort of the Republican party, been abandoned, and the American idea of the individual's right to transfer his allegiance having been accepted by European nations, it is the duty of our Government to guard with jealous care the rights of adopted citizens against the assumptions of unauthorized claims by their former Governments; and we urge the continual and careful encouragement and protection of voluntary immigration.

X. The Franking Privilege ought to be abolished, and the way prepared for a speedy reduction in the rate of postage.

XI. Among the questions which press for attention is that which concerns the relations of capital and labor, and the Republican party recognize the duty of so shaping legislation as to secure full protection, and the amplest field for capital, and for labor the creator of capital, the largest opportunities and a just share of the mutual profits of these two great servants of civilization.

XII. We hold that Congress and the President have only fulfilled an imperative duty in their measures for the suppression of violent and treasonable organizations in certain lately rebellious regions, and for the protection of the ballot-box, and therefore they are entitled to the thanks of the nation.

XIII. We denounce repudiation of the public debt in any form or disguise as a national crime. We witness with pride the reduction of the principal of the debt and of the rates of interest upon the balance, and confidently expect that our excellent national currency will be perfected by a speedy resumption of specie payments.

XIV. The Republican party is mindful of its obligations to the loyal women of America for their noble devotion to the cause of freedom. Their admission to wider fields of usefulness is received with satisfaction, and the honest demands of any class of citizens for additional rights should be treated with respectful consideration.

XV. We heartily approve the action of Congress in extending amnesty to those lately in rebellion, and rejoice in the growth of peace and fraternal feeling throughout the land.

XVI. The Republican party propose to respect the rights reserved by the people to themselves as carefully as the powers delegated by them to the State and to the Federal Government. It disapproves of the resort to unconstitutional laws for the purpose of removing evils by interference with rights not surrendered by the people to either the State or National Government.

XVII. It is the duty of the General Government to adopt such measures as will tend to encourage American commerce and ship-building.

XVIII. We believe that the modest patriotism, the earnest purpose, the sound judgment, the practical wisdom, the incorruptible integrity, and the illustrious services of Ulysses S. Grant have commended him to the heart of the American people, and with him at our head we start to-day upon a new march to victory.

The President of the Convention, Judge Settle, of North Carolina, addressed to President Grant a letter apprising him of his nomination, in the following terms:

WASHINGTON, June 10th, 1872.

To the President.—SIR: In pursuance of our instructions, we, the undersigned, President and Vice-Presidents of the National Republican Con-

vention, held in Philadelphia on the 5th and 6th instant, have the honor to inform you of your nomination for re-election to the office of President of the United States. As it is impossible to give an adequate idea of the enthusiasm which prevailed, or the unanimity which hailed you as the choice of the people, we can only add that you received the entire vote of every State and Territory.

Regarding your re-election as necessary to the peace and continued prosperity of the country, we ask your acceptance of the nomination.

Signed by THOMAS SETTLE, President of the National Republican Convention, and the Vice-Presidents.

President Grant replied as follows, the same evening:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., June 10th, 1872.

The Hon. THOMAS SETTLE, *President National Republican Convention*, PAUL STRABACH, ELISHA BAXTER, C. A. SARGEANT, *and others, Vice-Presidents.*

GENTLEMEN: Your letter of this date, advising me of the action of the Convention held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on the 5th and 6th of this month, and of my unanimous nomination for the Presidency by it, has been received.

I accept the nomination, and through you return my heartfelt thanks to your constituents for this mark of their confidence and support. If elected in November, and protected by a kind Providence in health and strength to perform the duties of the high trust conferred, I promise the same zeal and devotion to the good of the whole people for the future of my official life as shown in the past. Past experience may guide me in avoiding mistakes inevitable with novices in all professions and in all occupations.

When relieved from the responsibilities of my present trust, by the election of a successor, whether it be at the end of this term or next, I hope to leave to him, as Executive, a country at peace within its own borders, at peace with outside nations, with a credit at home and abroad, and without embarrassing questions to threaten its future prosperity.

With the expression of a desire to see a speedy healing of all bitterness of feeling between sections, parties, or races of citizens, and the time when the title of citizen carries with it all the protection and privileges to the humblest that it does to the most exalted, I subscribe myself,

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT.

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN,

GENERAL OF THE ARMY OF THE U. S.

WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN, son of Hon. Charles R. Sherman, for some years a judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio, and a brother of Hon. John Sherman, the well known United States Senator from that State, was born in Lancaster, Ohio, on the 8th of February, 1820. His early education was obtained in the schools of his native town, but after his father's death, which occurred when he was nine years of age, he became a member of the family of Hon. Thomas Ewing, where he enjoyed much wider advantages; and, at the age of sixteen, entered the United States Military Academy at West Point. Graduating from that institution, June 30th, 1840, with the sixth rank of his class, he was immediately appointed to a second lieutenancy in the Third Artillery, and served through the next year in Florida, achieving some distinction by the masterly manner in which he foiled certain maneuvers of the wily Indian chief "Billy Bowlegs." In November, 1841, Sherman was made a first lieutenant, and, shortly after, was ordered to Fort Moultrie, Charleston harbor, where he remained several years, forming intimacies with eminent citizens of South Carolina, which it required all his firmness and patriotism in after years to abandon. In 1846 he was transferred to California and made assistant adjutant general, performing his duties with such marked ability, that

Congress, in 1851, made him captain, by *brevet*, dating from May 30th, 1848, "for meritorious services in California, during the war with Mexico." In September, 1850, he was appointed Commissary of Subsistence, with rank of captain, and assigned to the staff of the commander of the Department of the West, with headquarters at St. Louis. During the same year he married the daughter of his old friend, Hon. Thomas Ewing, and was soon after stationed at New Orleans, where he became well acquainted with the leading men of Louisiana. In September, 1853, he resigned his commission in the army, and was, for four years ensuing, the manager of the banking house of Lucas, Turner & Co., of San Francisco, California. In 1857, his services were solicited and secured, by some of his old Louisiana friends, as the President and Superintendent of a State Military Academy, which they were then establishing, and he assumed his position early in 1858. The objects and inducements alleged for the creation of such an institution were, of themselves, reasonable and plausible; and it was not until after the commencement of the Presidential campaign of 1860, that he became aware of the disloyal sentiments existing among the majority of the leading men of the State, or of the real and treasonable purposes which had influenced them in founding the academy over which he presided. Simultaneously with the unavoidable unmasking of their plans, these men now strove, by every persuasive art, to induce him to join with them in their revolutionary projects. But the solicitations of friendship, the proffer of gold, and the tender of high official position, failed to shake, even for a moment, the sterling loyalty of the soldier. Amazed at the revelation, and convinced that civil war was inevitable, he promptly sent to the Governor of the State the following letter of resignation:—

JANUARY 18, 1861.

GOV. THOMAS O. MOORE, *Baton Rouge, La.*

SIR:—As I occupy a *quasi*-military position under this State, I deem it proper to acquaint you that I accepted such position when Louisiana was a State in the Union, and when the motto of the seminary was inscribed in marble over the main door, "*By the liberality of the General Government of the United States. The Union, Esto Perpetua.*" Recent events foreshadow a great change, and it becomes all men to choose. If Louisiana withdraws from the Federal Union, *I* prefer to maintain my allegiance to the Old Constitution as long as a fragment of it survives, and my longer stay here would be wrong in every sense of the word. In that event, I beg you will send or appoint some authorized agent to take charge of the arms and munitions of war here belonging to the State, or direct me what disposition should be made of them. And furthermore, as President of the Board of Supervisors, I beg you to take immediate steps to relieve me as Superintendent, the moment the State determines to secede; for, on no earthly account will I do any act or think any thought, hostile to, or in defiance of, the old Government of the United States.

With great respect, &c.,

(Signed) W. T. SHERMAN.

His resignation was accepted with regret, by those who knew his worth as a man and his value as a soldier, and an instructor of soldiers; and, in February, he removed with his family to St. Louis. Shortly before the attack on Fort Sumter he visited Washington, and, conversant as he was with the intentions and plans of the Southern leaders—he was amazed at the apathy and incredulity of the Government, who, as he said, "were sleeping on a volcano, which would surely burst upon them unprepared." Urging upon government officials the imminency of the impending danger and the fearful lack of preparation to meet it, he also proffered his services as a soldier who had been educated at the country's expense and

who owed every thing to her care and institutions. But the threatened storm was generally regarded, by those in authority, as a matter which would "blow over" in sixty, or, at the most in ninety days, and he could find no one to comprehend or indorse his views in regard to the necessity of immediately calling out an immense army *for the war*. Upon the organization, however, of the new regiments of the regular army, in June, 1861, he was made colonel of the new 13th infantry, his commission dating from May 14th, 1861. His first actual service in the war was at the battle of Bull Run, or Manassas, where he commanded the Third Brigade in the First (Tyler's) Division. The spirited manner in which he handled his men was in strong contrast to the many disgraceful scenes which have made that day one of ignoble memories. The vigor and desperate valor, indeed, with which Sherman fought his brigade on that occasion, is evidenced by the fact that its losses were far heavier than any other brigade in the Union army; his total of killed, wounded and missing, being six hundred and nine, while that of the whole division was but eight hundred and fifty-nine, and of the entire army, aside from prisoners and stragglers, but fifteen hundred and ninety. His valor and good conduct were promptly rewarded by his appointment as a brigadier general of volunteers, his commission dating from May 17th, 1861; and, early in August, he was made second in command of the Department of the Ohio, under General Anderson. On the 8th of October he was appointed to the chief command, in place of that general, who had been obliged to resign on account of ill health. The Department of the Ohio, which, at this time, comprised all east of the Mississippi, and west of the Alleghanies, was in a deplorable condition; paucity of troops; insufficiency of supplies and munitions of war; a surrounding country, lukewarm, if not openly inimical to the Union cause, and the close

proximity of large, well equipped and well officered forces of the enemy (who, if they had known his real condition, could have driven him "out of his boots" in ten days) rendered Sherman's situation a most unenviable one. In addition to the pressure of these unfavorable circumstances, he now found himself annoyed and seriously endangered by the presence in his camp of numbers of those "gad-flies" of the press—newspaper letter writers and reporters—whose indiscreetness threatened to reveal to the enemy, the very facts which most needed concealment. He soon put an end to this risk by a stringent general-order, which excluded the whole busy crew from his lines, and, of course, brought down upon his own head an avalanche of indignation from a hitherto "untrammeled press." Sherman's greatest difficulty, however, was the impossibility of making the Government comprehend the magnitude of the contest which it was waging, and the necessity of placing a large and well appointed army in the field, which should make short work with rebellion by the crushing weight of numbers. When, in October 1861, he explained to the Secretary of War the critical position of his own department, and, in reply to a question of the number of troops needed for an immediate forward and decisive movement, replied "two hundred thousand men"—his words were considered visionary—and he was incontinently pronounced "crazy," by government officials as well as by the newspaper press, who had not forgiven him for his former severity. Chagrined at the distrust of his military judgment thus evinced by his superiors, Sherman, in November 1861, asked to be relieved from his position, and was succeeded by General Buell, who, being immediately reinforced with the troops so often requested by and so persistently denied to his predecessor, was enabled to hold the department in a defensive attitude, until the opening of the spring campaign.

Sherman, meanwhile, was left to rust in command of Benton barracks, near St. Louis, until General Halleck, who succeeded Fremont in command of the Western Department, and who well knew the abilities of the man, detailed him for service in General Grant's army; and, after the capture of Fort Donelson, he was placed in command of that general's fifth division, composed mostly of raw troops, whom he began immediately to drill and perfect. Soon the storm of battle again burst upon him, at Shiloh, April 6th, 1862, where he had taken position three miles out from Pittsburgh Landing, on the Corinth road. Sustaining, against great odds, the repeated and furious onsets of the enemy on the 6th, he assumed the offensive on the 7th, and pushed them back with heavy loss; and, on the morning of the 8th, pushing still forward, met and routed their cavalry, and captured many prisoners and large quantities of arms and ammunition. During the advance upon Corinth, which followed this battle of Shiloh, his division was constantly in the lead and carried, occupied, and reintrenched seven distinct camps of the enemy; and when, on the 30th of May, Beauregard retreated from the city, it was Sherman's gallant division which took possession of it. Occupying with these raw recruits, at the opening battle of Shiloh, "the key point of the landing," says General Grant, in his official report, "it is no disparagement to any other officer to say, that I do not believe there was another division commander on the field who had the skill and experience to have done it. *To his individual efforts I am indebted for the success of that battle.*" General Halleck also records it as the "unanimous opinion, that General Sherman saved the fortunes of the day; he was in the thickest of the fight, had three horses killed under him, and was twice wounded"—and in this eulogium of his services, every general officer, as well as others, heartily concurred. At the earnest request of Generals Grant

and Halleck, Sherman was made a major-general of volunteers, dating from May 1st, 1862. Appointed by General Grant, in the spring of 1862, to the command of the district of Memphis, Tennessee, he thoroughly suppressed, within the course of six months, the guerrilla warfare and contraband trade which had rendered it, in the opinion of rebel officers, a more valuable position to them in the possession of the Federal government, then it ever had been while in their own. When, in December, 1862, General Grant began his operations against Vicksburg, he first placed Sherman in command of the fifteenth army corps, and after the latter had made some important reconnoissances, he took him into his confidence regarding his plan for the capture of that city. According to this plan, Sherman, with four picked divisions, sailed from Memphis in December, to make a direct attack upon Chickasaw Bluffs, a part of the defences of Vicksburg on the river side, while Grant himself, proceeding down the Mississippi Central railroad, to Jackson, Mississippi, was to move to the rear of the city. Grant's movement, however, was prevented by the unexpected surrender of Holly Springs, on the Mississippi Central railroad, which was to be his base of supplies, and he was also unable to communicate the fact to Sherman. Unconscious of this, therefore, the latter pressed on, disembarked on the 26th and 27th of December, and after three days' desperate fighting, which failed to make any impression upon the fortifications of the city, had the mortification to be superseded in command by General McClernand, a volunteer officer, to whom he transferred the command with a soldierly loyalty and manliness, which few men, in his circumstances, would have been able to exhibit towards a civilian general, and a rival. The repulse of the Chickasaw Bluffs, however, was subsequently fully compensated for by the hearty praise and candid criticism of General Grant and other eminent military critics, who saw, in the natural topo-

graphy of the ground, the insuperable obstacles against which he had so bravely contended. Sherman's next most brilliant exploit was his rapid and successful movement for the relief of Admiral Porter's fleet of gunboats, on the Sunflower river, which were in danger of being hemmed in by the enemy, while attempting to reach Haines' Bluff, above Vicksburg, with a view to an attack on the city. In Grant's subsequent attempt on the city from below, the *role* assigned to Sherman was one involving considerable danger, and requiring a high degree of military tact—being a feigned attack, or rather a demonstration, in conjunction with the gunboats, on Haines' Bluff. This attack, which continued with great fury for two days, enabled Grant to land his troops without opposition at a point seventy miles below,—then, by a forced six days' march over terrible roads, General Sherman joined his force to that of Grant at Grand Gulf, and the whole army moved forward. We next find Sherman operating with McPherson in a series of brilliant movements, resulting in the rout of the enemy and the capture of Jackson, Mississippi, and the destruction of numerous railroad bridges, machine shops, and arsenals at that point; then, by a succession of rapid marches, which General Grant characterized as "almost unequalled," he wrested the possession of Walnut Hills from the enemy, cutting their force in two, and compelling the evacuation of Haines', Snyder's, Walnut, and Chickasaw Bluffs, together with all their strong works; and enabling General Grant at once to open communication with the fleet and his new base on the Yazoo and Mississippi, above Vicksburg. To General Sherman it was perhaps an additional source of pleasure that the position which he had thus gained by a rear attack, was the very one against which, less than five months before, he had hurled his troops in vain. In the first assault on the enemy's lines, May 19th, Sherman's corps, alone

of the three engaged, succeeded in making any material advance. The surrender of the city of Vicksburg, on the 4th of July brought rest and comfort to all of the brave "Army of the Tennessee, except to Sherman's corps, who were immediately started in pursuit of Johnston, then hovering in the rear of the Union army. Johnston marched at once to Jackson, which he attempted to defend, but finally, on the night of the 16th, evacuated hastily, abandoning every thing to Sherman, of whom General Grant said, in reference to this last success, "It entitles General Sherman to more credit than usually falls to the lot of one man to earn." A well earned rest of two months was terminated, September 23d, by orders from Grant to reinforce Rosecrans, who had just fought the battle of Chickamauga. Promptness, celerity of movement, and a force of will which overcame every obstacle which enemy or accident placed in his way, characterized his execution of this order. Arriving at Memphis, he pushed on to open communication between that city and Chattanooga; and, while so engaged, was appointed commander of the Army of the Tennessee, at the request of General Grant, who had been advanced to the command of the Grand Military Division of the Mississippi, comprising the Armies of the Cumberland, the Ohio, and the Tennessee. On the 15th of November, under imperative orders from Grant, and by a forced march, he joined that general at Chattanooga, and exhausted as his men were, by the arduous march from Memphis, he at once received, and promptly obeyed, orders to cross the Tennessee, make a lodgment on the terminus of Missionary Ridge and demonstrate against Bragg's flank. The roads were in a horrible condition, but by herculean exertions, three divisions were put across the river and concealed, during the night of November 23d, behind some hills, and by one o'clock, the following morning, his whole force had crossed

both the Tennessee and the Chickamauga, and under cover of a rain and dense fog, the cavalry dashed forward to cut the Chattanooga and Knoxville, and the Cleveland and Dalton railroads, while the infantry, by half past three, P. M., surprised and captured the fortifications on the terminus of Missionary Ridge; and the Union guns being dragged up the steep ascent, quickly silenced the fire which was opened upon them from the batteries of the discomforted and enraged enemy. The night was spent in rest and preparation for the struggle which the morrow would inevitably bring for the possession of Fort Buckner, the formidable fortification which crowned the next or superior ridge of the hill. To General Sherman, on account of his known abilities and, more especially, his unquestioning obedience to military necessities, was assigned a task requiring firmness and self-sacrifice, unattended with any immediate hope of reputation and fame, but which he accepted with that promptness which always characterizes him. It was, to make a persistent demonstration against Fort Buckner, in order to draw the enemy's force from Forts Bragg and Breckinridge, which being weakened, would fall an easier conquest to Grant's storming column. Splendidly did this masterly soldier and his brave men carry out their part in the programme of the battle of the 25th. From sunrise, until three o'clock, they surged forward in desperate charges upon the fortifications of the crested heights above them—again and again were repulsed—still gained a little and steadily held what they gained—until the enemy had massed nearly his whole force against the struggling column; when, suddenly, Hooker swooped down upon Fort Bragg, and at twenty minutes to four P. M., Thomas's Fourth army corps, charging in solid column up the ridge, carried Fort Breckinridge by assault—and the battles of Chattanooga were won. The glorious success of that day was due quite as much

to the persistency and stubbornness with which General Sherman held the crest of Tunnel Hill, as to the gallant daring of the other divisions; and, without the former, the latter could never, by any possibility, have succeeded.

Victory, however, brought no respite to Sherman and his tired veterans. The flying foe was to be pursued and railroad connections severed; and, while so engaged, they were ordered to the relief of Knoxville, where twelve thousand men under General Burnside were closely besieged by Longstreet. Eighty-four miles of terrible roads, and two rivers, lay between them and Knoxville, which must be reached in three days. Seven days before they had left their camp beyond the Tennessee, with only two days' rations, and but a single coat or blanket per man, officers as well as privates, and with no other provisions but such as they could gather by the road. In that time, also, they had borne a conspicuous part in a terrible battle, and well might they have been excused if they had grumbled at this fresh imposition of extra duty. But with them "to hear was to obey." The railroad bridge across the Hiawassee was repaired and planked; they then pushed forward to the Tennessee, and found the bridge there destroyed by the enemy, who retreated. Despatching Colonel Long with the cavalry brigade, with orders to ford the Little Tennessee, and communicate tidings of the approaching relief to General Burnside within twenty-four hours, Sherman turned aside to Morgantown, where he extemporized a bridge, which he crossed on the night of December 4th; and the next morning received information from Burnside of Colonel Long's safe arrival, and that all was well. Moving still rapidly forward, he was met at Marysville, on the evening of the 5th, by the welcome news of the abandonment of the siege by General Longstreet, on the previous evening. Halting at Marysville, he sent forward two divisions, under

General Granger, to Knoxville, and every thing there being found safe, returned leisurely with the rest of his army to Chattanooga. The three months' campaign thus closed, had been one of extreme fatigue and brilliant success. Leaving Vicksburg, they had marched four hundred miles, without sleep for three successive nights, fought at Chattanooga, chased the enemy out of Tennessee, and turning more than a hundred miles northward, had compelled the raising of the siege of Knoxville. All this had been done, much of the time, in the depth of winter, over a mountainous region, sometimes barefoot, without regular rations or supplies of any kind, and yet without a murmur. "Forty rounds of ammunition in our cartridge-boxes, sixty rounds in our pockets; a march from Memphis to Chattanooga; a battle and pursuit; another march to Knoxville; and victory everywhere," was the proud answer of one of these fifteenth corps soldiers, in reply to the sentinel who asked him where his badge was. And the cartridge-box with forty rounds, thenceforth, became the emblem of the fifteenth corps.

Early in 1863, Gen. Sherman planned an expedition into Central Mississippi, which was sanctioned by Gen. Grant and which was immediately carried into effect. His idea was to march a movable column of 22,000 men, cut loose from any base, for one hundred and twenty miles through the enemy's country, which should sweep Mississippi and Alabama out of the grasp of the rebels. As a military conception it was unsurpassed in modern times, except by Sherman himself in his later movements; and that it failed of its intended results—and became merely a gigantic raid, which, however, carried terror and destruction into the very heart of the Confederacy—was owing only to the lack of proper energy in the co-operating cavalry force. This force, 8000 strong, leaving Memphis on the 1st of February, was to move down the Mobile and Ohio rail-

road from Corinth to Meridian, destroying the road as they went. At Meridian they were expected to meet Sherman, who, with 20,000 cavalry, 1200 infantry, and twenty days' rations, left Vicksburg on the 3d. The cavalry force, however, were so badly behind time at starting, that when they did move they met with much opposition from the enemy, who had massed at different points on the route; and they finally turned back. Sherman's share of the expedition was promptly carried out, railroad communications were cut, stores destroyed, negroes brought away, and an immense amount of irreparable damage done. Finding that the co-operating cavalry force was not "on time" at the appointed rendezvous, he turned his face westward from Meridian, followed at a very respectful distance by the enemy, from whom, however, he received no serious opposition. The failure, however, deranged and postponed, for a time, the contemplated attack on Mobile by Farragut.

On the 12th of March, 1864, Sherman succeeded to the command of the grand military division of the Mississippi, recently vacated by Gen. Grant, who had been elevated to the command of the armies of the United States. This division comprised the departments of the Ohio, the Cumberland, the Tennessee, and, for the time, Arkansas; and the forces under his command —soon to be increased—numbered, at that time, over 150,000 men, under such leaders as Thomas, McPherson, Schofield, Hooker, Howard, Stoneman, Kilpatrick, Rousseau, and others of equal ability and fame. At a conference with Grant, soon after this event, plans for the coming campaign had been fully discussed and agreed upon. It was decided that a simultaneous forward movement of the eastern and western armies should take place in May, one aiming for Richmond, Virginia, and the other for Atlanta, Georgia. In less than fifty days, Sherman had concentrated the different army corps at Chattanooga, as

well as immense stores of arms, ammunition and cannon; had re-organized and drilled his men, remounted and increased his cavalry, and made all the arrangements, even to the minutest detail, for the expected campaign. On the seventh of May, his army of 98,797 effective men (of which 6149 were cavalry and 4460 artillery) and 254 guns, moved forward to its gigantic work—the capture of Atlanta, 130 miles distant. The region of Northern Georgia through which they were to pass, abounds in rugged hills, narrow and steep defiles and valleys, with rapid and deep streams; and is, in all respects, a difficult country for military movements. In addition to its natural topographical advantages, the Chattanooga and Atlanta railroad threaded many of these mountain passes, and these points, therefore, had received the special attention and scientific skill of Gen. Johnston, the rebel commander, who had added immensely to their strength by almost impregnable fortifications. Opposed to the Union troops, also, were about 45,000 well trained soldiers, reinforced during the subsequent campaign by nearly 21,000, and commanded by Johnston, Hardee, Hood, and other picked generals of the Confederacy. Again, while the rebel army, if compelled to retreat, would be only falling back upon its base of supplies, Sherman's army, already 350 miles from the primary base at Louisville, and 175 from its secondary base at Nashville, was increasing that distance by every step of its advance; and was under the necessity of guarding its long and constantly increasing line of communications (one, and for a part of the distance, two lines of railroad, and in certain conditions of navigation, the Tennessee river) from being cut by the rebel cavalry, as well as from the attacks of guerrillas. Yet Sherman, during the succeeding five months' campaign, retained this line of nearly 500 miles, wholly within his control, turning to the signal discomfiture of the enemy every attempt which they made

to destroy it. Dalton, a position of great strength, and which could only be reached by the Buzzard Roost's Gap, a narrow and lofty defile in the great rock-faced ridge of the Chattoogata mountains, was the first point of attack. Protected by a formidable abatis, and artificially flooded from a neighboring creek, and commanded by heavy batteries, this defile, through which the railroad passed, and which offered the only route to Dalton, was impregnable by a front attack. Leaving Thomas and Howard to demonstrate vigorously against it, therefore, Sherman, with the rest of his army, flanked it by a movement through Snake Creek Gap, towards Resaca, on the railroad, eighteen miles below Dalton. Johnston, however, fell back on Resaca before the Union army had reached it, while Howard passed through Dalton close in Johnston's rear. Once in Resaca, Johnston showed fight, and Sherman having pontooned the Oostanaula, south of the town, and sent a division to threaten Calhoun, the next place on the railroad, and a cavalry division to cut up the railroad between Calhoun and Kingston, gave battle at Resaca, which place, after two days' heavy fighting, the rebel commander abandoned in the night of the 15th, burning the bridge behind him, with a loss of some 3500, of whom 1000 were prisoners, eight guns and a large amount of stores, etc. Pressing fiercely on his flying footsteps, Sherman sent the 14th corps to Rome, which was captured and garrisoned, and after a severe skirmish at Adairsville, he reached Kingston on the 18th, captured it, and gave his troops a few days' rest, while he reopened communications with Chattanooga, and brought forward supplies for his army. On the 23d, with twenty days' rations, he moved forward again, flanking the dangerous defile of Allatoona Pass, by a rapid march on the town of Dallas. Johnston, fearing for the safety of his railroad communications, felt compelled to leave his fortified position and give battle. In rapid succession

followed the severe engagements at Burnt Hickory on the 24th, at Pumpkinvine creek and at New Hope church, on the 25th, and Johnston's grand attack on General McPherson at Dallas, on the 28th, where the former was repulsed with a loss of over three thousand. While this had been going on, Sherman had extended his left, so as to envelope the rebel right, and to occupy all the roads leading eastward towards Allatoona and Ackworth, and finally occupied Allatoona Pass with his cavalry, with a feint of moving further south. Suddenly, however, he reached Ackworth, and Johnston was obliged to fall back, on the 4th of June, to Kenesaw mountain. Sherman now fortified and garrisoned Allatoona Pass as a secondary base, repaired his communications, and on the 9th of June received full supplies and reinforcements by railroad from Chattanooga.

Moving forward again, he proceeded to press Johnston, who held a finely fortified position in a triangle, formed by the northern slopes of Pine, Kenesaw, and Lost mountains. After several days' artillery practice, General Johnston was found, on the morning of the 15th, to have abandoned the first named mountain, and to be occupying a well intrenched line between the two latter. Sherman still pressed him until he evacuated Lost mountain, and, finally, was obliged to make another change—with Kenesaw as his salient, covering Marietta with his right wing, and with his left on Norse's creek, by which means he hoped to gain security for his railroad line. A sally by Hood's corps upon the Union lines, on the 22d, was repulsed with a heavy loss to the assailants; and, on the 27th, Sherman made an assault upon Johnston's position, which was unsuccessful. Despite the heavy loss which they sustained, the Union troops were not dispirited, and a skilful manœuvre by Sherman, compelled the evacuation of Marietta, on the 2d of July. General Johnston remained well intrenched on the west bank of the

Chattahoochie, until the 5th, when a flank movement of Sherman compelled him to cross, which he did in good order. But, on the 7th and 8th of July, Sherman secured three good points for crossing the river, and the Confederates were obliged to fall back to Atlanta, leaving their antagonist in full possession of the river. While giving his men the brief rest, which they so much needed, before his next move on Atlanta, eight miles distant, Sherman on the 9th, telegraphed orders to a force of two thousand cavalry (which he had already collected at Decatur, over two hundred miles in Johnston's rear) to push south and break up the railroad connections around Opelika, by which the rebel army got its supplies from central and southern Alabama, Georgia, and Mississippi, and then join him at Marietta. The cavalry, under General Rousseau, set out promptly, and, within twelve days, destroyed thirty miles of railroad, defeated the rebel General Clanton, and reached Marietta on the 22d, with a loss of only thirty men. Meanwhile, the main army had been enjoying a rest, supplies had been brought forward, railroad guards and garrisons strengthened, roads and bridges improved and the attention of the rebels well diverted by cavalry expeditions which were sent down the river. On the 17th, then, a general advance was made, and the same evening the Union army formed its line along the old Peach Tree road. The next day McPherson and Schofield, swinging around upon the Augusta railroad, east of Decatur, broke it up most effectually, and, on the 19th, Thomas crossed Peach Tree creek on numerous bridges thrown across in face of the enemy's lines. All this was accomplished with heavy skirmishing, and on the 20th, Hood (who, three days previous, had succeeded General Johnston in the supreme command of the Confederate army), taking advantage of a gap between two corps of the Union army, hurled his whole force upon its left

wing, with the hope of cutting off and routing it. His skilfully conceived stratagem, however, was foiled by the unexpected steadiness of the Union soldiers, and after a terrible battle the enemy was driven back to his intrenchments, with a loss of over five thousand men. Retreating to his interior lines along the creek, forming the outer lines of the defences proper of Atlanta, Hood now massed nearly his whole force, and, upon the 22d, fell upon Sherman's left with great fury. Six times during the day his columns desperately charged upon the Union lines, but at night he was compelled to withdraw with a loss of fully 12,000 men, of whom over 3000 were killed, 5000 stand of arms and eighteen flags. The Union loss was but 1,720, but among the slain was the able and beloved Major-General James B. McPherson, commander of the army of the Tennessee, whose death was not only a serious blow to General Sherman, but was generally regarded as a national misfortune. The day following this severely contested battle, General Garrard's cavalry force, which had been sent to Covington, Georgia, to break the railroad and bridges near that place, returned to headquarters, having fully executed his mission with great damage to the rebel cotton and stores, and a considerable number of prisoners. An expedition, however, planned by General Sherman for the destruction of the Atlanta and Macon, and the West Point railroads, with the view of severing Atlanta from all its communications and compelling its surrender, was not so successful. A portion of it, under General McCook, performed its share speedily and well, but the co-operating force under General Stoneman unfortunately failed—the general and a large number of his men being captured—while McCook was obliged to fight his way out; the whole entailing a heavy loss of cavalry to the Union army.

On the 28th of July, Hood in full force again assaulted the

Union army on the Bell's Ferry road—expecting to catch its right flank "in air." He found, however, that Sherman was perfectly prepared for him—and, after six desperate assaults, gave it up as a bad job, having lost fully 5000 men, which, with his losses in the previous battles of the 20th and 23d, placed nearly one half of his force *hors du combat.* Hoping, by threatening his communications, to draw Hood out from his fortifications, Sherman now extended his line southwesterly towards East Point. The *ruse* failed, however, and the only alternative remaining to compass the capture of Atlanta, involved the necessity of another flank movement of the whole army, a difficult and unwelcome matter both as regarded the further removal of the army from its base of supplies and the apparent raising of the siege. But there seemed to be no other way, and accordingly, on the nights of the 25th and 26th, a portion of his army was withdrawn to the Chattahoochie, and Hood congratulated himself that a cavalry expedition which he had sent northward to break the Union connections between Allatoona and Chattanooga, had alarmed Sherman for the safety of his communications, and compelled him to raise the siege. The joy of the rebels, however, was of short duration; on the 29th of August, they learned that Sherman's army was sweeping their own railroad communications at West Point with a "besom of destruction"—and on the 31st, two rebel corps, which had been hastily pushed forward to Jonesboro, were heavily repulsed by the advancing Union armies. Finding his communications now irretrievably lost, by this flank movement of his antagonist, Hood retreated, on the night of September 1st, to Lovejoy's Station. Atlanta was occupied, the next day, by the victorious Union troops, and the city was immediately converted into a strictly military post. The loss of Atlanta was a severe blow to the rebels; and, under orders

from President Davis, on the 24th of September, Hood initiated a series of movements by which he hoped to recover not only it, but northern Georgia and east and middle Tennessee. Sherman, however, kept a watchful eye upon him and pursued him closely to Gaylesville, where he could watch him intrenched at Will's Gap, in Lookout mountain. Divining, further, that Hood meditated a union with General Dick Taylor at Tuscumbia, Alabama, and a joint attempt by them, for the recovery of middle and east Tennessee, he divided his army, giving a share to his trusted friend General George H. Thomas, with orders to hold Tennessee against the rebels. Then, announcing to his army that he should follow Hood northward no longer, but "if he would go to the river, he would give him his rations," he moved back to Atlanta, by the 1st of November, and sent the railroad track, property of value, etc., at that city and along the line, to Chattanooga, which thenceforward became the outpost of the Union army in that direction. Leaving Tennessee safe in Thomas's charge, and Schofield to keep the rebels out of Chattanooga and Nashville, Sherman now prepared for a campaign which he had already projected through Georgia and North Carolina "to the sea." "They are at my mercy," he telegraphed to Washington, "and I shall strike. Do not be anxious about me. I am all right." With the army under his command, consisting of nearly 60,000 infantry, and 10,000 cavalry, he proposed to cut loose from all bases, and, with thirty or forty days' rations and a train of the smallest possible dimensions, to move southeastward through the very heart of the Confederacy, upon Savannah; thence, if favored by circumstances, to turn northward through North and South Carolinas, thus compelling the surrender or evacuation of Richmond. With General Sherman, action follows close on thought. Destroying all the public buildings of Atlanta, he

moved forward in two columns, the right commanded by General Howard and the left by General Slocum, while a cloud of cavalry floating around the main body, shrouded the real intentions of the march with a degree of mystery impenetrable to the enemy. General Howard's column, accompanied by General Sherman, passed through East Point, Rough and Ready, Griffin, Jonesboro, McDonough, Forsythe, Hillsboro, and Monticello, reaching Milledgeville, the capital of Georgia, on the 20th of November; thence *via* Saundersville and Griswold to Louisville. The left wing, meanwhile, under Slocum, had marched through Decatur, Covington, Social Circle, Madison; threatened Macon with attack, then through Buckhead and Queensboro, and divided, one part moving towards Augusta, the other to Eatonton and Sparta. Here, uniting, they entered Warren and finally joined the right wing at Louisville. The whole force now moved down the left bank of the Ogeechee to Millen and thence to the Savannah canal, where their scouts, on the 9th of December, communicated with General Foster and Admiral Dahlgren, who where there waiting for their arrival.

During this magnificent march of three hundred miles, they had met with no very serious opposition, and the few troops which the rebel generals could muster, were skilfully thrown out of his way by Sherman's feints on Macon and Augusta—by which they were garrisoned for the defence of those cities. So completely, indeed, was General Bragg fooled by his wily antagonist, that when Savannah was actually attacked, he was unable to come to its relief. Fort McAllister was carried by storm, by the Union troops, on the 13th of December, and on the 16th, the city, which, by some strange oversight, had only a garrison of one hundred and fifty men, was summoned to surrender. General Hardee, who commanded these, refused, whereupon Sherman commanded to invest the city, with the

design of bombarding it. But, on the night of the 20th, under cover of a heavy fire from the rebel gunboats and batteries, Hardee abandoned the city, which was entered the next day by the Union army. Into the hands of the victors fell 150 guns, 13 locomotives, 190 cars, large stores of ammunition and supplies, 3 steamers, and 33,000 bales of cotton in warehouses. The expedition, the entire loss of which was less than 400 men, gave freedom to over 20,000 slaves who accompanied it to Savannah; and its course was marked by over 200 miles of destroyed railroad, which effectually broke the enemy's connection with Hood's and Beauregard's armies. Simultaneously, also, with their victorious entry into Savannah, Sherman and his brave veterans received the welcome news, that the Union army in Tennessee, decoying Hood to Nashville, had there turned upon him, and utterly routed him even beyond the borders of Alabama. From every quarter, indeed, of Sherman's military jurisdiction, came the good news, that in each place his subordinates had proved themselves worthy of the trusts committed to their charge. Hopefully then, the great leader turned to the completion of his self-imposed and herculean task.

South Carolina—Columbia, its capital, and Charleston, "the nest of the rebellion," were yet to be humbled beneath the mailed foot of loyalty. Refreshed, recruited and strengthened at every point, the army commenced its march to the northward, on the 14th of January, 1865. Two corps (15th and 17th) were sent by transports to Beaufort, South Carolina, where they were joined by Foster's command, and the whole force moved on the Savannah and Charleston railroad. A few days later, the two remaining corps (14th and 20th) crossed the Savannah river, and despite the overflowed and terrible condition of the roads, struck the railroad between Branchville and Charleston, early in February; compelled the enemy to evacuate the former

place on the 11th, and breaking up the road so as to effectually prevent reinforcement from the west, entering Orangeburg on the 16th, and Columbia on the 18th, close on the heels of Beauregard's retreating force. This movement flanked Charleston, and Hardee, finding it untenable, retreated in the light of a conflagration, which laid two thirds of the business portion of that beautiful city in ashes. On the morning of February 18th, the Union troops from Morris island, entered the city, and the "old flag" once more floated over Fort Sumter. Moving in two columns, the 17th and 20th corps marched from Columbia to Winnsboro, thirty miles north, on the Charlotte and Columbia railroad, which was thoroughly destroyed. Sending Kilpatrick towards Chesterville, in order to delude Beauregard into the belief that he was moving on that point, Sherman turned east, his left wing directed towards Cheraw, and his right threatening Florence. On the 3d of March occurred the short and not very severe battle of Cheraw, a success for the Union arms, and on the next day, March 4th, President Lincoln's second inauguration was celebrated by a salute from the rebel guns which they had captured. On the afternoon and night of the 6th, the Union army crossed the Great Pedee river, and in four columns, with outlying cavalry, swept through a belt of country forty miles wide, entering Laurel Hill, North Carolina, on the 8th, and reaching Fayetteville on the 11th. Thus far, the results of the campaign had been, 14 captured cities, hundreds of miles of railroads, and thousands of bales of cotton destroyed, 85 cannon, 4000 prisoners, 25,000 horses, mules, etc., and 15,000 refugees, black and white, set at liberty. After a rest of two days, Sherman moved moderately forward, meeting, fighting, and defeating the enemy under Johnston, at Averysboro, on the 16th, and again, on the 19th, at Bentonville; finally, pressing them back so swiftly on Smithfield, on the 20th and 21st, that they lost

seven guns and over 2000 prisoners, while deserters poured in by hundreds. On the same day Schofield occupied Goldsboro, General Terry secured Cox's bridge, and successfully pontooned the Neuse river, and General Sherman issued a congratulatory order to his troops, in which he says: "After a march of the most extraordinary character, nearly five hundred miles, over swamps and rivers, deemed impassable to others, at the most inclement season of the year, and drawing our chief supplies from a poor and wasted country, we reach our destination in good health and condition—you shall now have rest, and all the supplies that can be brought from the rich granaries and storehouses of our magnificent country, before again embarking on new and untried dangers." The entire Union losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners, on this sixty days' march from Savannah to Goldsboro, had been less than 2500 men. Leaving his men to recruit their energies, Sherman went to City Point, where, on the 27th of March, he had an interview with General Grant and the President, returning to his camp the next day.

His army was now only separated from Grant's by a distance of 150 miles, traversed by a railroad which could easily be put in order for immediate use; and, between the two, as between the upper and the nether millstone, the enemy were to be crushed by a blow, which, as yet, neither army hastened to give.

On the 10th of April, Sherman's army, thoroughly rested and fully equipped, moved on Smithfield, which they entered on the following morning. Johnston, who commanded a large body of troops, retired across the Neuse, burning the bridge behind, and retreating by railroad. Sherman's men, struggling through roads so muddy that they were obliged to corduroy every foot of them, were cheered by the news of Lee's surrender, which met them *en route*, and leaving their trains, they pushed ahead with redoubled energy, to Raleigh, which they entered in the

early morning of the 15th. Sherman now took measures to cut off Johnston's retreat, when the latter (knowing, what Sherman did not, that Salisbury had been captured by the Union General Stoneman on the 12th, thereby closing his own avenue of escape to the southward) made overtures for surrender. Interviews between the two generals, on the 17th and 18th, (at the latter of which General J. C. Breckinridge, then acting Secretary of War of the Confederacy, was present) resulted in the drawing up of a joint memorandum, to be submitted to the Presidents of the United States and of the Confederate Government, and if approved by them to be acted upon. The points of this memorandum were briefly as follows: (1) the contending armies to remain in *statu quo*, hostilities not to be resumed until within forty-eight hours after due notice from either side; (2) the Confederate armies then in the field to disband, march to their respective State capitals, there to deposit their arms and public property, and each man to execute an agreement to cease from acts of war. The number of arms, etc., to be reported to the chief of ordnance at Washington, subject to the future action of the United States Congress, and, meanwhile, to be used only to maintain peace and order within the borders of the several States; (3) the recognition, by the Executive of the United States, of the several State governments, on their officers and legislatures taking the oath prescribed by the Constitution of the United States; and the legitimacy of any conflicting State governments to which the war may have given rise, to be submitted to the Supreme Court of the United States; (4) the re-establishment of all Federal courts in the several States, with powers as defined by the Constitution and laws of Congress; (5) the guarantee, by the Executive, to the people of all the States, of their political rights and franchises, as well as personal and property rights, according to the Constitutions of the United

States and the several States; (6) the people not to be disturbed by the United States Government, on account of the late war, so long as they lived in peace, obeyed their local laws, and abstained from acts of armed hostility; (7) on the above conditions, a general amnesty. This agreement, which was evidently entered into by Sherman under the full conviction that *slavery was dead* and the rebellion totally crushed, was received at Washington, by the Cabinet, just at the moment that their hearts and the public mind were intensely agitated and confused by the recent atrocious assassination of President Lincoln, the attempt on Secretary Seward's life, and the other startling events of the day. To men in such a frame of mind, and when read by the light of surrounding circumstances, its terms seemed unpardonably liberal. Forgetting that his action coincided exactly with the published policy of the late President (in his permission [April 7th] to the Virginia legislature to meet and adopt such measures as should withdraw the State troops from the Confederate force); and forgetting, also, that Sherman, in his recent great march, had been completely isolated from the outside world, and was ignorant of any change of policy on the part of the new President—the Cabinet set the seal of its disapproval upon the course which the gallant chieftain had submitted to their consideration. Yet, it is worthy of note, that, as events have since turned, the relations of these States to the Union have been based upon the identical policy which Sherman's course then indicated. General Grant went, therefore, immediately to Raleigh, where he arrived on the 24th, and Sherman promptly notified the enemy of the termination of the armistice at the end of forty-eight hours. Johnston immediately signified to Sherman his desire for a conference, which resulted, on the 26th, in the surrender of the Confederate army to General Sherman, on the terms awarded to General Lee

30,000 soldiers, 15,000 muskets, 108 pieces of artillery were surrendered, and the war of the rebellion was virtually ended. On the 4th of May, the greater part of his army moved northward to Richmond and Washington, where they were reviewed, May 24th, 1865, and about two-thirds of them disbanded, the war having so nearly closed, as to render their further presence in the field unnecessary.

From June 27th, 1865, to August 11th, 1866, General Sherman held the command of the Military Division of the Mississippi (including Ohio, Missouri, and Arkansas), with headquarters at St. Louis; and, from the latter date, of the Military Division of Missouri, which command he retained till March 5, 1869. He was also appointed a member of the Board to make recommendations for brevets to general officers, March 14th to 24th, 1866; and was sent on a special mission to Mexico, in November and December, 1866. On the 25th of July, 1866, by vote of Congress, he was created LIEUTENANT-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY, a deserved acknowledgment of his valor, skill, and patriotism. On the 19th of the same month, he received from Dartmouth College, New Hampshire, the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws. On the 5th of March, 1869 he was nominated by President Grant, and the same day confirmed by the Senate, as GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY, succeeding in this, as in his previous promotion, the President, who had on assuming the Presidential office resigned his commission of General. General Sherman was himself succeeded in the Lieutenant-Generalship by Major-General Sheridan. The duties of this high office being, in time of peace, mostly of a routine character, General Sherman took up his residence in Washington, and gave his attention to them, visiting, however, from time to time the various divisions and departments. In November, 1871, he sailed for Europe accompanied by Lieutenant Fred. D. Grant, the eldest son of the

President, who had a few months previous graduated from West Point. At the time of our writing (June, 1872) he is on the European Continent, having visited Egypt, Turkey and the Kingdom of Italy.

General Sherman is tall and slender, but possesses great elasticity and power of endurance. His temperament is nervous and wiry, with a dash of the sanguineous, indicated by his auburn hair and beard. His manners are slightly brusque and austere, and he has a quick, jerky way of speaking. He is a great smoker, but chews and bites his cigar somewhat viciously, especially when, as is often the case, he is in one of his abstracted moods, and thinking closely. He requires but little sleep. As a writer he expresses himself with great terseness and force, sometimes condensing a whole volume of military law into a single sentence. He is imperious, positive, and dogmatical, but he has usually thought out his opinions carefully before committing them to writing. His mind acts with great rapidity, and though sometimes eccentric and crotchety, he generally reasons accurately and well. With all his imperiousness and dogmatism, he always recognises the great military law, that "unhesitating obedience is the first duty of a soldier."

General Sherman is a man of higher genius, as well as of broader culture, than General Grant, yet we doubt if he would be quite as safe a man, as the commander-in-chief of our armies in a great war. He is, indeed, well versed in both the theory and practice of logistics; and in handling an army of a hundred thousand men or more with masterly skill, he has not a dozen equals, and perhaps hardly a superior in the world. His deficiency, if he has one, would be manifested in his unwillingness, in the midst of a great contest, to subordinate the military to the civil power, however necessary it might be to do so. General Sherman's ambition lies wholly in the military direction, and although

he has attained to the highest command possible in this country, he does not relax his military studies. He took great delight in following out the admirable strategical plans of General Moltke, in the recent Franco-German-war. As a commander he has always had the regard of his soldiers, not from personal magnetism, like Sheridan or McPherson, but from the conviction that their grim chieftain would share their toils and privations uncomplainingly, and that he took a special interest in seeing their wants supplied and their comfort secured.

ADMIRAL DAVID D. PORTER.

IF courage and splendid fighting qualities are inherited, Admiral Porter should be, as he is, one of the best fighting men in the navy, for he is the youngest son of that old Viking, Commodore David Porter, who, in the war of 1812, was the terror of the British marine, and who, while, unlike Semmes of the *Alabama*, he never let slip an opportunity of engaging a war vessel of the enemy, even if she carried twice his armament, made worse havoc with their mercantile marine, than Semmes did with ours. The career of the frigate Essex, and her untoward fate, made the old commodore a hero for the rest of his life. After the close of the war he served as a member of the board of Navy Commissioners from 1815 to 1823, but the longing for the sea was too strong for him to overcome, and an opportunity occurring for a cruise to destroy the pirates who were infesting the West Indies, he gladly took command, and served two years, when, having punished with some severity an insult offered by the authorities of one of the islands, he was called home, and a naval court martial having decided that he had transcended his authority, he was suspended from command for six months. He resigned soon after, and for the next four years was commander-in-chief of the naval forces of Mexico. Returning to the United States in 1829 he was appointed consul general to the Barbary powers, and thence transferred first as

chargé and afterward as minister, to Constantinople, where he remained till his death in 1843.

His youngest son, DAVID D. PORTER, was born in Philadelphia in June, 1813, and, while still a child, accompanied his father in his cruise after the pirates in 1823–25. We believe he was also with him in Mexico.

On the 2d of February, 1829, he received his warrant as midshipman, being appointed from Pennsylvania. He was ordered to the frigate Constellation, thirty-six guns, stationed in the Mediterranean, under Commodore Biddle and Captain Wadsworth.

In 1831, the Constellation was ordered home, and laid up in ordinary at Norfolk, and Porter was granted leave of absence, after which, in 1832, he was ordered back to the Mediterranean on the new flag-ship United States, a forty-four gun frigate, under Captain Nicholson, Commodore Patterson having charge of the squadron. On the 3d of July, 1835, he passed his examination, and was recommended for early promotion. During the years 1836 to 1841, he was appointed on the Coast Survey and exploring expeditions, and stood on the list of passed midshipmen at the following numbers:—January 1, 1838, No. 111; January 1, 1839, No. 84; January 1, 1840, No. 61, and January 1, 1841, at No. 48.

On the 27th of February, 1841, he was commissioned a lieutenant, and ordered to the frigate Congress, a forty-four gun vessel-of-war. He then rejoined the Mediterranean squadron, and after a short time this vessel was ordered on the Brazilian station. He still retained his position on the same frigate, and was on her more than four years; for his name is recorded as one of her lieutenants on the rolls of the Navy Department for the years commencing January 1, 1842, 1843, 1844, and 1845. He had not risen much during these years; for on the

first mentioned date his name stood at N . 267 on the list of lieutenants; on the second at No. 258; on the third at No. 245, and on the last at No. 232. At the latter end of 1845 he was attached to the Observatory at Washington on special duty, which position he still held at the commencement and during a part of the year 1846. He then stood No. 228 on the list. On January 1, 1847, after having performed some brilliant exploits in the Gulf of Mexico during the Mexican war, he is entered as being in charge of the rendezvous at New Orleans, from which he was detached to again join the Coast Survey, on which service his name is recorded on January 1, 1848. During this year he was appointed to the command of the schooner Petrel, engaged on the survey.

In February, 1849, he left New York as the commander of the steamship Panama, the third of the vessels constituting the line of American mail steamers first established for service on the Pacific. The pioneer passage of the Panama was attended with incidents which displayed on the part of the commander courage, caution, patience, and thoroughly competent qualifications for the post to which he had been assigned. After taking the vessel safely to Panama Bay, he was ordered to New York to the command of the mail steamer Georgia, which command he held during the latter part of 1850, the years 1851 and 1852, and a great portion of 1853.

Amongst the many gallant exploits of Admiral Porter was that of running the steamer Crescent City (appropriately named) into the harbor of Havana, during the excitement between the two countries relative to the ship Black Warrior. The Spanish government had refused to permit any United States vessel to enter that port. Running under the shotted guns of Moro Castle, he was ordered to halt. He promptly replied that he carried the United States flag and the United States mails, and, by

the Eternal, he would go in; and he did, the Habaneros fearing to fire upon him. He said afterwards that he intended firing his six-pounder at them once in defiance, after which he would haul down his flag. During the Mexican war, Admiral Porter, then a lieutenant, took a very active part in the naval portion of that conflict. He was the executive officer and first lieutenant under the famous Commodore Tatnall, who had charge of the mosquito fleet in the waters of the Gulf. Their adventures before Vera Cruz are not likely soon to be forgotten.

On the 1st of January, 1854, he is recorded absent again on leave, and at the beginning of the next year awaiting orders. His name now stood at No. 138. During 1855 he was ordered to the command of the storeship Supply, and held this command during the next year, until February, 1857. He was then ordered on shore duty, and on the 1st of January, 1860, was at the Navy Yard at Portsmouth as third in command.

At the beginning of the year 1861, he was under orders to join the Coast Survey on the Pacific, but, fortunately, had not left when the rebellion broke out. His name at this time stood number six on the list of lieutenants. The resignation of several naval traitors left room for his advancement, and the "Naval Register" for August 31, 1861, places him number seventy-seven on the list of commanders, with twenty others between him and the next grade of rank below. He was then placed in command of the steam sloop-of-war Powhatan, a vessel of about twenty-five hundred tons, and armed with eleven guns. In her he took part in one section of the blockading squadron, and left that ship to take the special charge of the mortar expedition. The active part he took in the reduction of the forts below New Orleans will make his name ever memorable in connection with the mortar fleet, or "bummers," as the sailors term them. After the capture of New Orleans he, with his

fleet, went up the Mississippi river, and was engaged in several affairs on that river, including that of Vicksburg. From that place he was ordered to the James river, and returned in the Octorara. When off Charleston, on his way to Fortress Monroe, he fell in with and captured the Anglo-rebel steamer Tubal Cain. It was at first supposed that he would have been placed in command of the James river flotilla; but from some cause this plan was changed. He was allowed leave of absence to recruit his health, while his mortar fleet was engaged on the Chesapeake and in front of Baltimore.

In October, 1862, he was appointed to the command of the Mississippi gunboat flotilla, as successor to Commodore Davis, with the rank of acting rear-admiral, and was required to co-operate with General Grant in the assault and siege of Vicksburg. His services in that siege form a record of which any man might be proud. His squadron was a large one, composed of vessels of all sizes, many of them constructed under his own supervision, and a considerable number were armed steamers, plated with from three to four and a half inches of iron and capable of resisting the shot of any but the heaviest batteries. His previous very thorough knowledge of the Mississippi river was of great advantage to him in this service, as well as in his operations previously and subsequently in the lower Mississippi. In General Grant he evidently found a co-worker after his own heart, for imperious and exacting as the admiral's temper is, they had no difficulties, and he entered most heartily into all the general's efforts to find a suitable point for assailing successfully the Gibraltar of the rebellion. Previous to the coming of General Grant's army to Young's Point, Admiral Porter had cleared the lower Yazoo of torpedoes, losing one gunboat (the Cairo) in the attempt; had assisted General Sherman to the utmost of his ability in his attack upon Chickasaw

Bluffs; and accompanying General McClernand in his expedition to the post of Arkansas and the White river, had bombarded the fort (Fort Hindman) till it surrendered, and broken up the other small forts and driven out the rebel steamers on the White river. He also succeeded in blockading eleven rebel steamers in the Yazoo. His activity during the next six months was incessant; now sending gunboats and rams down the river past the batteries of Vicksburg to destroy the rebel rams and steamers and capture the supplies intended for Vicksburg and Port Hudson; then firing at the upper or lower batteries of Vicksburg, cutting the levee at Yazoo pass and endeavoring to force a passage through the Yallobusha and Tallahatchee into the Yazoo; and failing in this, cutting his way through the labyrinth of bayous and creeks to attain the same end. These exercises were varied by sending occasionally a coal barge fitted up as a monitor, past the batteries, greatly to the fright of the rebels, who, after concentrating the fires of their batteries on the contrivance without effect, were so badly scared as to destroy the best gunboat (the Indianola taken from Lieutenant Commander Brown) they had on the river, from fear of its capture by this formidable monitor. Then came the hazardous experiment of running gunboats past the batteries, twice repeated, to aid General Grant in his movement to approach Vicksburg from below and from the rear. The success of these enterprises, only two transports out of sixteen or eighteen, and none of the gunboats, being destroyed, was remarkable, and of itself evinced great skill and caution on the part of the admiral. The fight at Grand Gulf was a severe one, and not successful, but the night following the batteries were run, and the troops ferried over to Bruinsburg, from whence they marched to Jackson and to the rear of Vicksburg. Meanwhile a part of the spuadron had been engaged in aiding

Sherman in making a demonstration on Haines' Bluff to draw off the attention of the rebels from Grant's approach by the south.

When, on the 19th of May, Grant's army made their first assault on the rear of Vicksburg, and on the 22d of May, when the second assault was made, Admiral Porter maintained a heavy fire in front, to distract the attention of the rebels; and during the whole siege, whenever a ball or shell could be thrown from his squadron either above or below the city with good effect, it was promptly and accurately hurled. The surrender of Vicksburg, on the 4th of July, and of Port Hudson on the 9th, opened the Mississippi to our fleet and to merchant steamers, and thenceforth the fleet on the Mississippi acted only as an armed river patrol. The duties of the squadron in these respects were, however, somewhat arduous for a time. The Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, and the Ohio, were included within its cruising ground; and the pursuit of Morgan's expedition to Buffington island, and the repressing of occasional rebel raids, kept them almost constantly on the alert.

Early in March, 1864, Admiral Porter ascended the Red river to co-operate with General Banks in his expedition to break up the rebel posts on that river, and penetrate by that route into Texas. The expedition was at first successful, and captured the forts of the enemy, and their principal towns, in a series of brief engagements. But, as they ascended the river, the greed of gain seemed to take possession of the squadron, and large quantities of cotton were gathered up from both shores of the river and brought on board the gunboats; and they were forced so far up the falling stream, that they were in great danger of being unable to return, and so of becoming a prey to the rebels. The army, too, had been seriously repulsed, and had made a somewhat hasty retreat as far as Grand Ecore.

From this point downward the squadron was in constant trouble—the larger vessels getting aground, hard and fast, several times a day, and being compelled to tie up at night; harassed almost every hour by small bodies of rebel troops, whom they could only keep off by a free use of canister and grape shot; not making more than thirty miles a day, and the river constantly falling. At length, thirty miles below Grand Ecore, the Eastport, the largest vessel of the squadron, stuck fast and hard upon the rocks in the channel, and could not be moved; and the admiral was compelled to give orders for her destruction. The attempt made by the rebels to board the Cricket, another of his gunboats, at this juncture, was so severely punished, that they disappeared, and were not seen again until the mouth of Cane river, twenty miles below, was reached. Here was a rebel battery of eighteen guns, and a severe fight ensued. The Cricket, which was but lightly armed (being, as the men were in the habit of saying, only "tin clad"), was very badly cut up, almost every shot going through her, two of her guns being disabled, and half her crew, and her pilot, and chief engineer, being either killed or badly wounded. Here the splendid personal bravery of Admiral Porter proved their salvation. He improvised gunners from the negroes on board, put an assistant in the place of the chief engineer, took the helm himself, and ran past the battery under a terrific fire, which he returned steadily with such of his guns as were still serviceable. The other gunboats, though sadly injured, at length got by—the Champion, only, being so much disabled as to be unable to go on, and being destroyed by order of Admiral Porter.

On reaching Alexandria, matters were still worse. In the low stage of water, the rapids were impassable by the gunboats, and at first their destruction seemed inevitable. But the engineer of the Nineteenth army corps, Lieutenant-Colonel

Joseph Bailey (afterward promoted to the rank of brigadier-general for this great service), devised a way of floating them over the rapids, by the construction of a series of wing-dams partly across the river at several points. The task was herculean, but it was skilfully and speedily accomplished, and by the 13th of May all the gunboats had passed the barrier and were on their way to the Mississippi river, still one hundred and fifty miles distant. Before this time, however, two small gunboats and two transports, laden with troops, were attacked by the rebels, and both the transports and one gunboat captured, and the other burned. Admiral Porter returned to his patrol of the Mississippi, from whence, soon after, he was transferred to the command of the North Atlantic squadron. Here he was busy, for a time, with the removal of torpedoes in the navigable waters of Virginia and North Carolina; in capturing blockade runners; and cruising after the pirates who seized our merchant steamers. But his restless activity and energy could not be satisfied without striking a blow at the chief port of entry for which the blockade runners aimed, and into which at least seven out of every ten succeeded in entering. Wilmington, North Carolina, had, during the whole war, been one of the chief seats of the contraband trade of the rebels, and the blockade runners had been more successful in eluding the vigilance, or escaping from the pursuit of the blockading squadron there, than either at Charleston or Mobile. This was due in part to its position, and the defences of the harbor. Five forts protected the entrance to the estuary of Cape Fear river; and while they were sufficient to prevent any access to the river by the blockading squadron, they effectually shielded the blockade runners, who succeeded in effecting an entrance, by either inlet, to the estuary. Of these works, Fort Fisher, one of the most formidable earthworks on the coast, was the chief; and it

was to the reduction of this, that the attention of Rear-Admiral Porter* was directed. The Navy Department, which had been instrumental in his transfer to the North Atlantic squadron, heartily seconded his efforts; and an arrangement having been made with General Grant for the necessary land forces to co-operate with the squadron, a fleet of naval vessels, surpassing in numbers and equipments any that had been assembled during the war, was collected with dispatch in Hampton Roads. Various circumstances delayed the attack until the 24th of December, 1864. What followed, is best related in the report of the Secretary of the Navy.

"On that day (December 24), Rear-Admiral Porter, with a bombarding force of thirty-seven vessels, five of which were iron-clad, and a reserve force of nineteen vessels, attacked the forts at the mouth of Cape Fear river, and silenced them in one hour and a quarter; but there being no troops to make an assault or attempt to possess them, nothing beyond the injury inflicted on the works and the garrison was accomplished by the bombardment. A renewed attack was made the succeeding day, but with scarcely better results. The fleet shelled the forts during the day and silenced them, but no assault was made, or attempted, by the troops which had been disembarked for that purpose. Major-General Butler, who commanded the co-operating force, after a reconnoissance, came to the conclusion that the place could not be carried by an assault. He therefore ordered a re-embarkation, and informing Rear-Admiral Porter of his intention, returned with his command to Hampton Roads. Immediate information of the failure of the expedition was forwarded to the department by Rear-Admiral Porter, who remained in the

* He was made full rear-admiral for his gallant services in the siege of Vicksburg, his commission dating from July 4th, 1863.

vicinity with his entire fleet, awaiting the needful military aid. Aware of the necessity of reducing these works, and of the great importance which the Department attatched to closing the port of Wilmington, and confident that with adequate military co-operation the fort could be carried, he asked for such co-operation, and earnestly requested that the enterprise should not be abandoned. In this the department and the President fully concurred. On the suggestion of the President, Lieutenant-General Grant was advised of the confidence felt by Rear-Admiral Porter that he could obtain complete success, provided he should be sufficiently sustained. Such military aid was therefore invited as would insure the fall of Fort Fisher.

A second military force was promptly detailed, composed of about 8,500 men, under the command of Major-General A. H. Terry, and sent forward. This officer arrived off Fort Fisher, on the 13th of January. Offensive operations were at once resumed by the naval force, and the troops were landed and intrenched themselves, while a portion of the fleet bombarded the works. These operations were continued throughout the 14th with an increased number of vessels. The 15th was the day decided upon for an assault. During the forenoon of that day, forty-four vessels poured an incessant fire into the rebel forts. There was, besides, a force of fourteen vessels in reserve. At 3 P. M., the signal for the assault was made. Desperate fighting ensued, traverse after traverse was taken, and by 10 P. M. the works were all carried, and the flag of the Union floated over them. Fourteen hundred sailors and marines were landed, and participated in the direct assault.

Seventy-five guns, many of them superb rifle pieces, and 1,900 prisoners, were the immediate fruits and trophies of the victory; but the chief value and ultimate benefit of this grand achievement, consisted in closing the main gate through which

the insurgents had received supplies from abroad, and sent their own products to foreign markets in exchange.

Light-draught steamers were immediately pushed over the bar, and into the river, the channel of which was speedily buoyed, and the removal of torpedoes forthwith commenced. The rebels witnessing the fall of Fort Fisher, at once evacuated and blew up Fort Caswell, destroyed Bald Head Fort and Fort Shaw, and abandoned Fort Campbell. Within twenty-four hours after the fall of Fort Fisher, the main defence of Cape Fear river, the entire chain of formidable works in the vicinity shared its fate, placing in our possession one hundred and sixty-eight guns of heavy calibre.

The heavier naval vessels, being no longer needed in that quarter, were dispatched in different directions—some to James river and northern ports, others to the Gulf or the South Atlantic squadron. An ample force was retained, however, to support the small but brave army which had carried the traverses of Fort Fisher, and enable it, when reinforcements should arrive, to continue the movement on Wilmington.

Great caution was necessary in removing the torpedoes, always formidable in harbors and internal waters, and which have been more destructive to our naval vessels than all other means combined.

About the middle of February, offensive operations were resumed in the direction of Wilmington, the vessels and the troops moving up the river in concert. Fort Anderson, an important work, was evacuated during the night of the 18th of February, General Schofield advancing upon this fort with 8,000 men, while the gunboats attacked it by water.

On the 21st, the rebels were driven from Fort Strong, which left the way to Wilmington unobstructed, and on the 22d of February, that city was evacuated. Two hundred and twelve

guns were taken in the works from the entrance to Old river, including those near the city, and thus this great and brilliant achievement was completed."

The failure of General Butler to make the attack when expected, though it would seem to have been justified by the dictates of prudence, and to have been in no respect due to any want of personal courage or daring on the part of the general, was very annoying to Rear-Admiral Porter, and led to an acrimonious correspondence between the two parties, neither of whom were at all chary in their abuse of each other.

The termination of the war soon after the capture of Wilmington, left little more active service for the North Atlantic squadron, and its reduction and consolidation with the South Atlantic squadron followed in June, 1865. Before this, however, on the 28th of April, Rear-Admiral Porter had been relieved, at his own request, of the command of the squadron, and Acting Rear-Admiral Radford succeeded him. In the few months' leave of absence granted him, he visited Europe.

In September, 1865, when the Naval Academy was brought back to Annapolis, and partially re-organized, Rear-Admiral Porter was appointed its superintendent, and has remained in that position since that time. He has infused new energy and character into the instruction there, and the Academy is now a worthy counterpart of the Military Academy at West Point. On the 25th of July, 1866, Vice-Admiral Farragut being promoted to the new rank of Admiral, Rear-Admiral Porter was advanced to the Vice-admiralty.

Vice-Admiral Porter remained in charge of the Naval Academy, though devoting a considerable portion of his time to the details of the Navy Department management, till the commencement of President Grant's administration, when he resigned the superintendency of the Academy, and was for some months, while the

department was in charge of Mr. Borie, the Secretary of the Navy *de facto*, though not *de jure*. When, soon after, Admiral Farragut set out upon his European tour, Vice-Admiral Porter's presence at Washington was, in some sort, a necessity, as many of the questions which come up for decision in the Navy Department require for their proper solution the judgment and knowledge of naval affairs of a high officer of the Navy. Admiral Farragut died August 14, 1870, and as the rank of Admiral in the Navy had been created expressly to honor him, and it had been the intention to abolish it after his death, there seemed to be a probability that he would have no successor. This probability was very galling to Vice-Admiral Porter. His ambition could be satisfied with nothing short of the highest position, and he immediately initiated measures to ensure his appointment. He had received from President Grant, on the 20th of September, 1870, the temporary promotion, until the next session of Congress, when it was expected that his name would be sent to the Senate for confirmation as Admiral in place of Farragut deceased. He was on terms of friendship and intimacy with the President; and though there might be some objection on the part of the Senate, he considered his confirmation a certainty. At this juncture a letter written by Admiral Porter, January 21, 1865, and addressed to Hon. Gideon Welles, then Secretary of the Navy, was published by Mr. Welles. In that letter Porter, whose temper is none of the sweetest, had made very severe strictures on General Grant, who had, as he supposed, under-rated the part taken by the Navy in the capture of Fort Fisher. The letter was unjust, and written evidently under the impulse of wounded pride and sensitiveness; but while it bore very hardly and unwarrantably on the motives and conduct of the general, it was easy to see that jealousy for the honor of the Navy had led him to write it. The true course for the admiral to have pursued

would have been to have explained in a note to the President, that the letter, evidently a confidential one, was written under a misapprehension of the real circumstances of the case, and was a natural ebullition of wounded pride and vexation at what, he afterward learned, was a misstatement of the general's real course, that he had subsequently done him justice, and that the bringing forward of this letter now was simply a piece of petty malice. Instead of this, Admiral Porter went to the President, and after expressing his regrets, denied all recollection of the matter, and sought to mollify the President's displeasure by such disavowal. We think that the President must have laughed in his sleeve at the trepidation and humiliation of the gallant admiral; but he passed over the offence, nominated the vice-admiral to the Senate for the rank of Admiral, and he was confirmed a few days later. But though the President would not deprive the admiral of what he believed to be a promotion to which he was justly entitled, their intimacy was not subsequently renewed.

Admiral Porter is a man of commanding personal appearance, of medium height, good features, a spare but muscular figure, of great physical power and capacity for endurance. He is an accomplished linguist, speaking fluently most of the European languages, and is a skilful performer on several musical instruments. Though of imperious and exacting temper, and intolerant of the slightest disobedience to his orders, he has always been able to rouse the highest enthusiasm in the men under his command. The secret of this is probably his extraordinary physical courage. He never asked any man in his squadron to incur any risk which he was not himself willing to face, and often in times of the greatest peril, he would be found in the most exposed position. This perfect fearlessness is the one trait in which he most nearly resembles the noblest of our Naval heroes—FARRAGUT.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

SINCE General Sheridan became famous, the honor of being his birth-place has been claimed by almost as many places as contended for the same honor in the case of Homer. Enthusiastic Irishmen have insisted that he first saw the light in county Cavan, Ireland; the army register for years credited Massachusetts with being the State in which he was born; the newspaper correspondents, knowing men that they are, have traced him to Albany, New York, where, they say, he was born while his parents were *en route* for Ohio; while the general himself, who being a party to the transaction should know something about it, and what is still more to the purpose, his parents, testify that he was born in Somerset, Perry county, Ohio, on the 6th of March, 1831. His parents were then recent emigrants from county Cavan, Ireland, but were not of the Scotch-Irish stock so largely predominant in that county, but belonged to one of the original Celtic and Roman Catholic families of the county.

Vain has been the attempt to find any of those incidents which foreshadow greatness, in the boyhood of the future cavalry general. He was a wild, roguish, fun-loving Irish boy, probably fond of horses, though the Rev. P. C. Headley's story about his riding a half broken vicious horse when only five years old is pronounced by the general himself an entire fabrication. He

went to school to an Irish schoolmaster for a time, when about ten or twelve years old, one of Goldsmith's sort:—

> "A man severe he was, and stern to view;
> I knew him well, and every truant knew;
> Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace
> The day's disasters in his morning face."

This pedagogue gave the mischievous urchin his full share of the birch, incited thereto, as one of Sheridan's schoolmates affirms, by the recollection of an occurrence in which Phil got the better of him. The story is substantially this: when Sheridan was about eleven or twelve years old, on a cold winter's morning, two of his schoolmates came early to the schoolhouse, and finding the teacher, McNanly, not yet arrived, prepared a somewhat unpleasant surprise for him, in the shape of a pailful of icy water suspended over the schoolhouse door, in such a way that its contents would descend upon the head of the one who should first open the door. This arranged they withdrew to a neighboring haymow, and waited to see the fun. McNanly soon came, unlocked the door and received the ducking, which naturally aroused his not very placable temper. He sat down to watch, resolved to give the first boy who should come, a terrible thrashing. A little fellow who happened to be first was caught by the neck and shaken fiercely, but being convinced that he knew nothing of it, the teacher dropped him and waited for another. Each boy in turn was throttled and shaken, the two real offenders among the rest, but as all denied it, McNanly still waited for his victims. At length Phil. Sheridan came, somewhat late, as usual, and convinced that he had now the real culprit, McNanly made a dive for him; the boy dodged and ran, and the teacher after him, bare headed and brandishing his stick. Phil did his best, but his legs were short, and when he reached his father's yard McNanly was almost upon him, and

he bolted through the gate, the teacher following at full speed, when a new ally suddenly came to Phil's relief. This was no other than a large Newfoundland dog, the boy's playmate and pet, who seeing his young master in trouble, sprang upon the teacher, who, frightened sadly, climbed the nearest tree with great agility. "Take away your divilish dog," he cried, "or I'll bate the life out of ye." "Like to see you," said the boy, as he very coolly brought a bit of old carpet, threw it under the tree and ordered Rover to "watch him." The dog obeyed and Phil mounted the fence and looked, somewhat impudently, we fear, at his teacher, the whole school meantime being gathered close by to see the end. McNanly's clothing was none of the warmest, and his cold bath and violent exercise had thrown him into a violent perspiration, and he was now shivering with the cold. "What d'ye want to lick me for?" queried Phil. "What did ye throw the wather on me for?" asked the teacher; "I didn't throw any wather on you," said the boy. "What did ye run so for, thin?" "Cause I saw ye was going to lick me," said Phil. "Well, call off the dog." "Not till ye promise ye won't lick me. Watch him, Rover." This last order was given as the teacher was trying to get down, and the dog in response seized him by the leg. Mr. Sheridan now came out, and McNanly appealed to him, declaring that he must lick Phil, for the sake of the discipline of the school, for the boys were all laughing at him now. Mr. Sheridan called to the dog, but he would not move, and doubting perhaps whether Phil deserved a thrashing, he returned into the house. "You'd better promise," said Phil, "for the dog won't mind anybody but me, and I can stay here all day." At length, nearly perished with the cold, McNanly promised that he wouldn't lick him *that time*, and the boy, calling to Rover, allowed the master to descend. The

subsequent whippings, Phil used to say, had interest added to them, on account of this.

Sheridan was fond of mathematics, and managed to pick up a fair knowledge of figures in school. At the age of about fifteen he was taken as a clerk by Mr. Talbot, a hardware dealer of the village, who, finding him active, intelligent, and faithful, gave him further instruction in mathematics and guided him in his reading. After a time, as a better position offered, he helped him to get it, and he became a clerk for Mr. Henry Detton. Not long after, General Thomas Ritchey was the Congressman from the district, and had in his gift an appointment to a vacancy at West Point. For this place there was a strong competition. Sons of wealthy parents came, or sent to him their applications with a long list of influential names. At length one letter came without recommendations or references. It merely asked that the place might be given to the writer and was signed, "Phil Sheridan." General Ritchey, who had known the boy for a long time and had marked his faithfulness and love of study, gave him the appointment at once.

Sheridan was at this time (1848), seventeen years old. Among his classmates were James B. McPherson, Schofield, Sill, Tyler, and the rebel General Hood. His scholarship at West Point was above mediocrity, but his animal spirits were so constantly running over, and his pugnacity was so much in the ascendancy, that he was always receiving demerit marks in the conduct column. One of the cadets insulted him, and he proceeded to redress his own grievances, by giving the offender a severe thrashing. This conduct, some of the officers of the academy believed justifiable, but it was unmilitary, and, as a result, Sheridan was suspended and thrown into the class below, so that he did not graduate till 1853, when he stood thirty-fourth in a class of fifty-two. He was ordered to duty as brevet second

lieutenant of infantry, but at first without being assigned to any particular regiment, and after serving in garrison at Newport barracks, Kentucky, for a few months, was sent in the beginning of 1854, to the Texas frontier, where for nearly two years, he served at Fort Duncan, La Peña, and Turkey creek, Texas. He received his commission as full second lieutenant, while in Texas, November 22d, 1854. Returning east, after a short period of garrison duty at Fort Columbus, New York, he was ordered to escort duty from Sacramento, California, to Columbia river, Oregon, and then on a series of expeditions among the Indians, for a year. He was next assigned to the military posts at Forts Haskins and Yamhill, where he endeavored to make peace with the Indians, learned their dialects, and won their regard to such an extent that he could accomplish what he pleased with them. On the 1st of March, 1861, he was promoted to a first lieutenancy in the fourth infantry, and ten weeks later, May 14th, a commission was sent him as captain in the thirteenth infantry, and with it, news of the impending war. He was ready for it, and wrote to a friend in the East: "If they *will* fight us, let them know we accept the challenge. Who knows? Perhaps I may have a chance to raise a major's commission." A modest ambition, certainly for the man who within four years was to demonstrate his title to be regarded as the ablest living cavalry general. He was ordered to report at Jefferson barracks, Missouri. He arrived in the midst of the confusion that followed the removal of Frémont from command. Nothing could be a more droll illustration of the frequent governmental faculty for getting the wrong men in the right places than the assignment that awaited the young Indian fighter. He was made president of a board to audit claims under the Frémont administration. He did the work satisfactorily, however; and presently the Government, fully satisfied

now, that here was a good man for routine and clerical duties, made him quartermaster and commissary for Curtis, at the outset of the Pea Ridge campaign.

All this seemed rapid promotion to Captain Sheridan, and he went to work heartily and earnestly to make a quartermaster of himself. He was sixty-fourth captain on the list—so one of the staff officers tells of his reasoning in those days—and with the chances of war in his favor, it needn't be a very great while before he might hope to be a major! With such modest aspirations he worked away at the wagon-trains; cut down regimental transportation, gave fewer wagons for camp furniture and more for hard bread and fixed ammunition, established secondary depots for supplies, and with all his labor found that he had not fully estimated the wants of the army. Some orders from General Curtis about this time seemed to him inconsistent with the West Point system of managing quartermasters' matters, and he said so, officially, with considerable freedom of utterance. The matter was passed over for a few days, but as soon as Pea Ridge was fought, General Curtis found time to attend to smaller affairs. The first was to dispense with the further services of his quartermaster, and send him back to St. Louis in arrest.

But, just then, educated officers were too rare in Missouri to be kept long out of service on punctilios. Presently the affair with Curtis was adjusted, and then the Government had some fresh work for this young man of routine and business. It sent him over into Wisconsin to buy horses! The weeping philosopher himself might have been embarrassed to refrain from laughter! McClellan was at the head of the army; Halleck had chief command in the west; men like McClernand and Banks, Crittenden and McCook, were commanding divisions or corps; and for Cavalry Sheridan the best work the Govern-

ment could find was—buying horses in Wisconsin! Then came Pittsburg Landing, and Halleck's hurried departure for the field. Wishing a body of instructed regular officers about him, he thought, among others, of Curtis's old quartermaster, and ordered him up to the army before Corinth. Then followed a little staff service, and at last, in May, 1862, the future head of the cavalry got started on his proper career. Watching wagon-trains, disputing with the lawyers about doubtful contractor's claims, or with the jockeys about the worth of horses—all this seems now very unworthy of Sheridan, but it was a part of his education for the place he was to fill; and we shall see that the familiarity thus acquired with the details of supplying an army were to prove of service to one whose business was to be to command armies, and to tax the energies of those who supplied them to the utmost.

There was need of a good cavalry force, and chiefly of good cavalry officers, men who understood their duties and could train a cavalry force to act with precision as well as dash, and not to fire once and run away. Our young Indian fighter was thought of; he had done good service in Oregon, and indeed everywhere else, and it was possible that he might know how to handle cavalry. So, at a venture, on the 27th, of May, he was commissioned colonel of the second regiment of Michigan volunteer cavalry, and sent immediately on the expedition to cut the railroad south of Corinth. This accomplished, on his return he was immediately sent in pursuit of the rebels, who were retreating from Corinth, and captured and brought off the guns of Powell's rebel battery. On the 6th of June, leading a cavalry reconnoissance below Boonesville, he met and signally defeated a body of rebel cavalry commanded by General Forrest; and on the 8th, started in pursuit of the enemy, drove them through Baldwin and to Guntown, where, though their

force was much larger than his own, he defeated them, but under orders from headquarters fell back to Boonesville and thence to Corinth.

On the 11th of June he was put in command of a cavalry brigade, and on the 26th, ordered to take his position at Booneville, twenty miles in advance of the main army, whose front he was to cover while at the same time he watched the operations of the rebels. His brigade numbered less than two thousand men.

On the 1st of July 1862, he was attacked at Booneville by a rebel force of nine regiments (about six thousand men), under command of General Chalmers. Sheridan slowly retreated toward his camp, which was situated on the edge of a swamp, in an advantageous position, where he could not be flanked, and here he kept up the unequal fight, but finding that Chalmers, with his greatly superior numbers, would in the end surround and overpower him, he had recourse to strategy. Selecting ninety of his best men, armed with revolving carbines and sabres, he sent them around to the rear of the enemy by a *detour* of about four miles, with orders to attack promptly and vigorously at a certain time, while he would make a simultaneous charge in front. The plan proved a complete success. The ninety men appeared suddenly in the enemy's rear, not having been seen till they were near enough to fire their carbines, and, having emptied these, they rushed with drawn sabres upon the enemy, who, supposing them to be the advance guard of a large force, were thrown into disorder; and, before they had time to recover, Sheridan charged them in front with such fury that they fled from the field in complete disorder, utterly routed. Sheridan pursued, and they continued their flight, utterly panic-stricken, to Knight's mills, twenty miles south from Boone-

ville, throwing away their arms, knapsacks, coats, and every thing which could impede their flight.

General Grant reported this brilliant affair to the War Department, with a recommendation that Colonel Sheridan should be promoted. This recommendation was granted, and his commission of brigadier-general bore date July 1, 1862.

At this time, the rebels in his front had but one stream (Twenty Mile creek) from which to water their live-stock, and from his post at Booneville, General Sheridan frequently made sudden dashes in that direction, and captured large quantities of their stock, often two or three hundred at a time. In August, 1862, he was attacked by a rebel cavalry force, under Colonel Faulkner, near Rienzi, Mississippi, but after a sharp engagement the rebels were defeated, and retreated in haste, Sheridan pursuing them to near Ripley, and, charging upon them before they could reach their main column, dispersed the whole force, and captured a large number of prisoners. Early in September, 1862, General Grant having ascertained that the rebel General Bragg was moving towards Kentucky, detached a portion of his own forces to reinforce the Army of the Ohio, then under command of General Buell. Among these were General Sheridan, and his old command, the second Michigan cavalry. As General Grant expected, General Buell gave Sheridan a larger command, assigning him to the charge of the third division of the Army of the Ohio. He assumed command of this division on the 20th of September, 1862. At this time, General Bragg was approaching Louisville, which was not in a good condition for defence, and General Sheridan was charged with the duty of defending it. In a single night, with the division under his command, he constructed a strong line of rifle-pits from the railroad depot to the vicinity of Portland, and thus secured the city against the danger of surprise. On the 25th of September,

General Buell arrived at Louisville, and soon commenced a re-organization of the Army of the Ohio, now largely reinforced. In this re-organization, General Sheridan was placed in command of the eleventh division, and entered upon his duties on the 1st of October.

Buell soon took the offensive again, and began pushing the rebels, who had already commenced a retreat, but were embarrassed by the amount of plunder they had collected. On the 8th of October, the rebels made a stand near Perryville, Kentucky, for the double purpose of checking the pursuit, and allowing their trains to move forward out of harm's way. The battle which followed, though a severe one, was not decisive, owing to some defects in the handling of the forces, and Bragg was allowed to make good his retreat with most of his plunder, and with but moderate loss: but in it, Sheridan played a distinguished part, holding the key of the Union position, and resisting the onsets of the enemy, again and again, with great bravery and skill, driving them at last from the open ground in front, by a bayonet charge. This accomplished, he saw that they were gaining advantage on the left of the Union line, and moving forward his artillery, directed so terrible a fire upon the rebel advance, that he drove them from the open ground on which they had taken position. Enraged at being thus foiled, they charged with great fury upon his lines, determined to carry the point at all hazards; but, with the utmost coolness, he opened upon them at short range, with such a murderous fire of grape and canister, that they fell back in great disorder, leaving their dead and wounded in winrows in front of the batteries. The loss in Sheridan's division in killed and wounded, was over four hundred, but his generalship had saved the Union army from defeat. On the 30th of October, General Rosecrans succeeded General Buell as commander of the Army of the Ohio, which, with enlarged territory, was

thenceforward to be known as the Army of the Cumberland, and in the re-organization, General Sheridan was assigned to the command of one of the divisions of McCook's corps, which constituted the right wing of that army. He remained for the next seven or eight weeks in the vicinity of Nashville, and then moved with his corps, on the 26th of December, 1862, toward Murfreesboro. During the 26th, his division met the enemy on the Nolensville road, and skirmished with them to Nolensville and Knob gap, occupying at night the latter important position. The next morning a dense fog obscured the horizon; but as soon as it lifted, Sheridan pressed forward, and drove the enemy from the village of Triune, which he occupied.

The next three days were spent in skirmishing, and in gradually drawing nearer, over the almost impassable roads, to Murfreesboro, the goal of their hopes. At length, on the night of the 30th of December, the army was drawn up in battle array, on the banks of Stone river.

"The men bivouacked in line of battle. They were to wake to great calamity and great glory in the morning.

"In the general plan of the battle of Stone river, the part assigned to the right wing, was to hold the enemy, while the rest of the army swung through Murfreesboro, upon his rear. In this right wing Sheridan held the left. Elsewhere along that ill-formed line were batteries, to which the horses had not been harnessed when the fateful attack burst through the gray dawn upon them. But there was one division commander who, with or without orders thereto, might be trusted for ample vigilance in the face of an enemy. At two in the morning, he was moving some of his regiments to strengthen a portion of his line, on which he thought the enemy was massing. At four he mustered his division under arms, and had every cannoneer at his post. For over two hours they waited. When the onset

came, the ready batteries opened at once. The rebels continued to sweep up. At fifty yards' distance the volleys of Sheridan's musketry became too murderous. The enemy, in massed regiments, hesitated, wavered, and finally broke. Sheridan instantly sent Sill's brigade to charge upon the retreating column. The movement was brilliantly executed, but the life of the gallant brigade commander went out in the charge.

"Presently the enemy rallied and returned. Already the rest of the wing had been hurled back in confusion; the weight of the victorious foe bore down upon Sheridan's exposed flank and broke it. There was now come upon Sheridan, that same stress of battle under which his companion division commanders had been crushed. But hastily drawing back the broken flank, he changed the front of his line to meet the new danger, and ordered a brigade to charge; while under cover of this daring onset, the new line was made compact. Here Sheridan felt abundantly able to hold his ground.

"But his flank———? The routed divisions, which should have formed upon it, were still in hasty retreat. He dashed among them—threatened, begged, swore. All was in vain; they would not re-form. Sheridan was isolated, and his right once more turned. Moving then by the left, he rapidly advanced, driving the enemy from his front, and maintaining his line unbroken till he secured a connection on the left with Negley. Here he was instantly and tremendously assailed. The attack was repulsed. Again Cheatham's rebel division attacked, and again it was driven back. Once again the baffled enemy swept up to the onset, till his batteries were planted within two hundred yards of Sheridan's lines. The men stood firm. Another of the brigade commanders fell · but the enemy was once more driven. Thus heroically did Sheridan strive to beat back the swift disaster that had befallen the right.

"But now came the crowning misfortune. When the rest of McCook's wing had been swept out of the contest, the ammunition train had fallen into the hands of the enemy. With the overwhelming force on his front, with the batteries playing at short range, with the third rebel onslaught just repulsed, and the men momentarily growing more confident of themselves and of their fiery commander, there suddenly came the startling cry that the ammunition was exhausted! 'Fix bayonets, then!' was the ringing command. Under cover of the bristling lines of steel on the front, the brigades were rapidly withdrawn. Presently a couple of regiments fell upon an abandoned ammunition wagon. For a moment they swarmed around it—then back on the double quick to the front, to aid in the retreat of the artillery. One battery was lost, the rest, with only a missing piece or two, were brought off. Thus riddled and depleted, with fifteen hundred from the little division left dead or wounded in the dark cedars, but with compact ranks and a steady front, the heroic column came out on the Murfreesboro turnpike. 'Here is all that is left of us,' said Sheridan, riding up to Rosecrans to report. 'Our cartridge-boxes are empty, and so are our muskets!'

"Thus the right, on which the battle was to have hinged, had disappeared from the struggle. Already the enemy, pressing his advantage to the utmost, seemed about to break through the centre; and Sheridan, supplied with ammunition, was ordered in to its relief. He checked the rebel advance, charged at one point, and captured guns and prisoners, held his line steady throughout, and bivouacked upon it at nightfall. This final struggle cost him his last brigade commander!"*

General Rosecrans, in his report of this battle, pays the following high compliment to Sheridan's generalship: "Sheridan,

* Mr. Whitelaw Reid's sketch of Sheridan in his "Ohio in the War."

after sustaining *four successive attacks*, gradually swung his right round southeasterly to a northwestern direction, *repulsing the enemy four times*, losing the gallant General Sill of his right, and Colonel Roberts of his left brigade; when, having exhausted his ammunition, Negley's division being in the same predicament, and heavily pressed, after desperate fighting they fell back from the position held at the commencement, through the cedar woods, in which Rousseau's division, with a portion of Negley's and Sheridan's, met the advancing enemy and checked his movements."

For his gallantry in this battle, General Rosecrans suggested, and the President recommended, Sheridan's promotion to the rank of major-general of volunteers, his commission to date from December 31st, 1862. He was at once confirmed by the Senate.

In the months that followed the battle of Stone river, months of watching and waiting, Sheridan kept himself busy, and enjoying the confidence of the commanding general, who did not, however, fully appreciate his talents, he and his division found constant employment. The country about Murfreesboro was thoroughly scoured, and all its strategic points carefully mapped in the mind of the cavalry general. On the 3d of march, he flung himself and his division upon the rebel General Van Dorn, who had penetrated as far as Shelbyville, Tennessee, in an advance upon the Union lines, hurled him back, pursued him to Columbia and Franklin, and near Eagleville, Tennessee, captured his train and a large number of prisoners. In the advance on Tullahoma, June 24 to July 4, 1863, he drove the rebels out of Liberty Gap, a strong mountain pass, which was one of the keys of their position, occupied Shelbyville, pushed forward to, and took possession of Winchester, Tennessee, which by a flank, movement, he had compelled the enemy to

abandon, and saved the great bridge over the Tennessee at Bridgeport, his infantry outstripping Stanley's cavalry, which they were ordered to support.

The Tennessee crossed, Chattanooga flanked by Rosecrans, and evacuated by Bragg, General Sheridan was sent to reconnoitre the enemy's force and position, and found him largely reinforced and determined to push Rosecrans to the wall and recover Chattanooga. Then came Chickamauga, the severe but wholly indecisive battle of the first day, in which, however, Sheridan, by his promptness and activity, did good service, and the disastrous fight of the second day, which yet, thanks to General Thomas's firmness and superb generalship, was not wholly a defeat. In this severe action, McCook's and Crittenden's corps and the general commanding the army were, by the fatal misunderstanding of an order, cut off from the remainder of the army, and compelled to fall back upon Rossville, and Chattanooga. Sheridan, whose division was still a part of McCook's corps, though involved in this disaster, succeeded, by the utmost effort, in rallying the greater part of his command and bringing it through by-roads from Rossville to join General Thomas. who had fought and repulsed the enemy. He was not in season, much to his mortification, to participate in the closing hours of the fight, but he nevertheless strengthened materially the hands of the general.

The corps of McCook and Crittenden were now consolidated into one (the fourth) corps, and the command of it given to Gordon Granger, an officer only less incompetent than those whom he succeeded. Then came a change of commanders to the Army of the Cumberland; General G. H. Thomas succeeded General Rosecrans, and the army of the Tennessee, and two corps from the Army of the Potomac, being added to the force, General Grant took charge of the whole. The battles of the

Wauhatchie, Lookout Mountain, and Mission Ridge, and the expulsion of the rebels from the valleys of Chattanooga and Chickamauga followed. In the capture of Orchard Knob, and in that most brilliant episode of the war, the ascent of Mission Ridge, Sheridan bore a conspicuous part. The fourth corps (Granger's) were the charging column, and stung by the recollection of that sad day at Chickamauga, as the six guns gave the signal for advance, Sheridan rode along his column, and called in thunder tones to his division, "Show the fourth corps that the men of the old twentieth are still alive, and can fight. Remember Chickamauga!"

Before Sheridan and the companion divisions stretched an open space of a mile and an eighth to the enemy's first line of rifle-pits. Above this frowned a steep ascent of five hundred yards, up which it scarcely seemed possible that unresisted troops could clamber. At the summit were fresh rifle-pits. As Sheridan rode along his front and reconnoitered the rebel pits at the base of the ridge, it seemed to him that, even if captured, they could scarcely be tenable under the plunging fire that might then be directed from the summit. He accordingly sent back a staff-officer to inquire if the order was to take the rifle-pits or to take the ridge. But before there was time for an answer, the six guns thundered out their stormy signal, and the whole line rose up and leaped forward. The plain was swept by a tornado of shot and shell, but the men rushed on at the double-quick, swarmed over the rifle-pits, and flung themselves down on the face of the mountain. Just then the answer to Sheridan's message came. It was only this first line of rifle-pits that was to be carried. Some of the men were accordingly retired to it by their brigade commander, under the heavy fire of grape, canister, and musketry. "But," said Sheridan, "believing that the attack had assumed a new phase, and that I

could carry the ridge, I could not order those officers and men who were so gallantly ascending the hill, step by step, to return.' As the twelve regimental colors slowly went up, one advancing a little, the rest pushing forward, emulous to be even with it, till all were planted midway up the ascent on a partial line of rifle-pits that nearly covered Sheridan's front, an order came from Granger: "If in your judgment the ridge can be taken, do so." An eye-witness shall tell us how he received it.* "An aid rides up with the order; 'Avery, that flask,' said the general. Quietly filling the pewter cup, Sheridan looks up at the battery that frowned above him, by Bragg's headquarters, shakes his cap amid that storm of every thing that kills, where you could hardly hold your hand without catching a bullet in it, and, with a 'How are you?' tosses off the cup. The blue battle-flag of the rebels fluttered a response to the cool salute, and the next instant the battery let fly its six guns, showering Sheridan with earth. The general said in his quiet way, 'I thought it d——d ungenerous!' The recording angel will drop a tear upon the word for the part he played that day. Wheeling toward the men he cheered them to the charge, and made at the hill like a bold-riding hunter. They were out of the rifle-pits and into the tempest, and struggling up the steep before you could get breath to tell it."

Then came what the same writer has called the torrid zone of the battle. Rocks were rolled down from above on the advancing line; shells with lighted fuses were rolled down; guns were loaded with handfuls of cartridges and fired down, but the line struggled on: still fluttered the twelve regimental flags in the advance. At last, with a leap and a rush, over they went—all twelve fluttered on the crest—the rebels were

* B. F. Taylor, of the Chicago Journal.

bayoneted out of their rifle-pits—the guns were turned—the ridge was won. In this last spasm of the struggle Sheridan's horse was shot under him. He sprang upon a captured gun, to raise his short person high enough to be visible in the half-crazy throng, and ordered a pursuit! It harassed the enemy for some miles, and brought back eleven guns as proofs of its vigor.

Signal as had been Sheridan's previous services, he had never before been so brilliantly conspicuous. In other battles he had approved himself a good officer in the eyes of his superiors; on the deathly front of Mission Ridge he flamed out the incarnation of soldierly valor and vigor in the eyes of the whole American people. His entire losses were thirteen hundred and four, and he took seventeen hundred and sixty-two prisoners. But these figures give no adequate idea of the conflict. It may be better understood from the simple statement that in that brief contest, in a part of a winter afternoon, he lost one hundred and twenty-three officers from that single division—a number greater than the whole French army lost at Solferino! Through his own clothes five minie balls had passed; his horse had been shot under him; and yet he had come out without a scratch.

For a short time longer he was employed in East Tennessee in driving out the rebels who still found a lodgment there, but when General Grant was advanced to the lieutenant generalship, one of his first acts was to apply to the War Department for the transfer of General Philip H. Sheridan to the eastern army, and when he was arrived, to make him the commander of the cavalry corps of the Army of the Potomac. Here he was in the sphere for which he had longed, and for which he was undoubtedly best fitted. But the cavalry of the Army of the Potomac was far from being in a model condition. The

days of the old service of cavalry, the heavy and light horse, the grand cavalry charges, and the chivalry of mounted troops under perfect drill were gone; minie muskets and rifled cannon had changed all that. But with this there had gone also in great measure the *esprit du corps* of the service. The squadrons were detailed for picket service, for guarding trains, for duties which could better be performed by infantry, and when they fought, they charged upon infantry, and were shy of any attack upon the enemy's cavalry. Against all this Sheridan protested, and with good effect. He procured their release from picket and train duty, he trained his men to care tenderly for their horses, which up to this time had been broken down with frightful rapidity, in consequence of the ignorance, heedlessness and indifference of their riders; he drilled them in all the service of cavalry and infused into them a portion of his own fiery spirit, and that joy in the fight, which marks the true cavalry soldier.

From the 5th of May, 1864, to the 9th of April, 1865, Sheridan's command were engaged in seventy-six distinct battles, all but thirteen of them under his own eye and order. At the close of the campaign he could say, with a commendable pride in the achievements of his men, though always modest in regard to his own deeds, "We sent to the War Department (between the dates above specified) two hundred and five battle flags, captured in open field fighting—nearly as many as all the armies of the United States combined sent there during the rebellion. The number of field pieces captured in the same period was between one hundred and sixty and one hundred and seventy, all in open field fighting.* * *We led the advance of the army to the Wilderness; on the Richmond raid we marked out its line of march to the North Anna, where we found it on our return; we again led its advance to Hanover-

town, and then to Cold Harbor; we removed the enemy's cavalry from the south side of the Chickahominy by the Trevillian raid, and thereby materially assisted the army in its successful march to the James river and Petersburg, where it remained until we made the campaign in the valley; we marched back to Petersburg, again took the advance and led the army to victory. In all these operations, the percentage of cavalry casualties was as great as that of the infantry, and the question which had existed—'who ever saw a dead cavalryman?' was set at rest."

Of the many remarkable actions hinted at in these pregnant sentences, we have space only to allude to two or three. His first raid toward Richmond was one of the most daring and successful of the war. He penetrated the outer line of defences of that city; bewildered and confounded the rebels by his audacity, fought two battles to extricate himself from his apparently critical position, in one of which General J. E. B. Stuart, the ablest cavalry officer of the rebels, was slain; defeated the enemy in both battles, built a bridge across the Chickahominy under fire, and finally returned to the Army of the Potomac after sixteen days with but slight loss, after inflicting serious and permanent injury upon the enemy. His second raid, undertaken to co-operate with Hunter in the valley of Virginia was less successful, owing to the utter failure of that officer's plans, but it kept the rebel cavalry out of the way of the Union army in crossing the James. On his return, he guarded the vast train of the Army of the Potomac (an irksome task to him), to and across the James, not without some sharp battles; made some raids south of the James, and took an active part in the feint at the north side of the James, in the last days of July. Appointed to the command of the Army of the Shenandoah, in August, he exhibited such ability in handling his troops, such alternate

caution and daring in his manœuvring with Early, that the confidence of the nation was soon reposed in him. That that confidence was not misplaced, he speedily gave decisive evidence.

On the 19th of September, after a fierce and stubborn fight at Opequan creek, he had defeated and routed Early, and as he expressed it, "sent him whirling through Winchester," following him relentlessly to his defences at Fisher's Hill, thirty miles below, killing in the battle and retreat, three, and wounding severely four more of his ablest generals, among the latter Fitzhugh Lee, the commander of the rebel cavalry of the army of Virginia. With his usual celerity, and a strategic skill of which, hitherto, he had not displayed the possession, he proceeded to attack Early's stronghold, Fisher's Hill, which that general had believed perfectly impregnable, and, on the 22d, carried it by storm, attacking in front, in rear, and on the flank; drove the rebels out and chased them without mercy till the 25th, driving them below Port Republic, at the extreme head of the valley.

For this splendid series of victories, he was made a brigadier-general in the regular army in place of the lamented McPherson. Twice more before the 13th of October he had driven back Early or his lieutenants, who, loth to give up the valley of the Shenandoah, the garden of Virginia, had obtained reinforcements and again essayed encounters with this western rough rider. At length, believing Early sufficiently punished to remain in obscurity for a time, Sheridan made a flying visit to Washington, on matters connected with his department. Early was quickly apprised of his departure, and resolved to profit by it. Collecting further reinforcements, and creeping stealthily up to the camp of the Union army at Cedar creek, eighteen or twenty miles below Winchester, the rebel soldiers being required to lay aside their canteens, lest the click of their

bayonets against them should apprize the Union troops of their approach, they reached and flanked Crooks' corps, which was in advance, at about day dawn. The Union troops were unpardonably careless, having no suspicion that the rebels were within twenty miles of them. They were consequently taken at unawares, and many of them bayonetted before they were fairly awake; in a very few minutes they were forced back, disorganized, upon the nineteenth corps, who were *en echelon* beyond them; they at first made a stand, but in a short time were forced back, though not completely disorganized; and the sixth corps in turn were compelled to stand against heavy odds. In the end all were driven back three or four miles, to the Middletown plains, and the fugitives were carrying the news of a total defeat and rout at full speed toward Winchester. But deliverance was nearer than they thought. They had lost twenty-four guns and twelve hundred prisoners, but they were beginning to recover from their fright, and were re-organizing, while the rebels, hungry and thirsty, wayworn and in rags, were stopping to plunder the camp. Still they would hardly have regained any portion of their lost territory and might have fallen back to Winchester, had not Sheridan, just at this juncture, appeared riding at full speed among them. He had heard the firing at Winchester, where he arrived late the night before, and at first was not alarmed by it, but, coming out of Winchester, he was met by some of the foremost of the fugitives, a mile from the town.

"He instantly gave orders to park the retreating trains on either side of the road, directed the greater part of his escort to follow as best they could; then, with only twenty cavalrymen accompanying him, he struck out in a swinging gallop for the scene of danger. As he dashed up the pike, the crowds of stragglers grew thicker. He reproached none; only, swinging

his cap, with a cheery smile for all, he shouted: 'Face the other way, boys, face the other way. We are going back to our camps. We are going to lick them out of their boots.' Less classic, doubtless, than Napoleon's 'My children, we will camp on the battle-field, as usual;' but the wounded raised their hoarse voices to cheer as he passed, and the masses of fugitives turned and followed him to the front. As he rode into the forming lines, the men quickened their pace back to the ranks, and everywhere glad cheers went up. 'Boys, this never should have happened if I had been here,' he exclaimed to one and another regiment. 'I tell you it never should have happened. And now we are going back to our camps. We are going to get a twist on them; we'll get the tightest twist on them yet that ever you saw. We'll have all those camps and cannon back again!' Thus he rode along the lines, rectified the formation, cheered and animated the soldiers. Presently there grew up across that pike as compact a body of infantry and cavalry as that which, a month before, had sent the enemy 'whirling through Winchester.' His men had full faith in 'the twist' he was 'going to get' on the victorious foe; his presence was inspiration, his commands were victory.

"While the line was thus re-established, he was in momentary expectation of attack. Wright's sixth corps was some distance in the rear. One staff officer after another was sent after it. Finally, Sheridan himself dashed down to hurry it up: then back to watch it going into position. As he thus stood, looking off from the left, he saw the enemy's columns once more moving up. Hurried warning was sent to the nineteenth corps, on which it was evident the attack would fall. By this time it was after three o'clock.

"The nineteenth corps, no longer taken by surprise, repulsed the enemy's onset. 'Thank God for that,' said Sheridan, gaily.

'Now tell General Emory, if they attack him again, to go after them, and to follow them up. We'll get the tightest twist on them pretty soon they ever saw.' The men heard and believed him; the demoralization of the defeat was gone. But he still waited. Word had been sent in from the cavalry, of danger from a heavy body moving on his flank. He doubted it, and at last determined to run the risk. At four o'clock the orders went out: 'The whole line will advance. The nineteenth corps will move in connection with the sixth. The right of the nineteenth will swing toward the left.'

"The enemy lay behind stone fences, and where these failed, breastworks of rails eked out his line. For a little, he held his position firmly. His left overlapped Sheridan's right, and seeing this advantage, he bent it down to renew the attack in flank. At this critical moment, Sheridan ordered a charge of General McWilliams' brigade against the angle thus caused in the rebel line. It forced its way through, and the rebel flanking party was cut off. Custer's cavalry was sent swooping down upon it—it broke, and fled, or surrendered, according to the agility of the individuals. Simultaneously the whole line charged along the front; the rebel line was crowded back to the creek; the difficulties of the crossing embarrassed it, and as the victorious ranks swept up, it broke in utter confusion.

"Custer charged down in the fast gathering darkness, to the west of the pike; Devin to the east of it; and on either flank of the fleeing rout they flung themselves. Nearly all the rebel transportation was captured, the camps and artillery were regained; up to Fisher's Hill the road was jammed with artillery, caissons, and ambulances; prisoners came streaming back faster than the provost marshal could provide for them. It was the end of Early's army; the end of campaigning in the beautiful valley of the Shenandoah."

The twenty-four cannon lost in the morning were retaken, and besides them, twenty-eight more of Early's. Beside these, there were fifty wagons, sixty-five ambulances, sixteen hundred small arms, several battle flags, fifteen hundred prisoners, and two thousand killed and wounded left on the field. The Union losses were about thirty-eight hundred, of whom eight hundred were prisoners.

In all the records of modern history, there are but three examples of such a battle, lost and won on the same field, and in the same conflict—Marengo, Shiloh, and Stone River; and in the two former the retrieval was due mainly to reinforcements brought up at the critical time, while the third was not so immediately decisive; but here, the only reinforcement which the army of the Shenandoah received or needed to recover its lost field of battle, camps, intrenchments, and cannon, was one man—SHERIDAN.

General Grant, on the receipt of the news of the battle, telegraphed to Secretary Stanton: "I had a salute of one hundred guns fired from each of the armies here, in honor of Sheridan's last victory. Turning what bid fair to be a disaster into a glorious victory, *stamps Sheridan, what I have always thought him, one of the ablest of generals.*" General Sheridan also received an autograph letter of thanks from the President, and on the 14th of November, he was promoted to the major-generalship in the regular army, vacated by General McClellan's resignation.

For six weeks following, there were occasional skirmishes with small bands of regular cavalry, the *debris* of Early's army, but this was all. In December, the sixth army corps returned to the Army of the Potomac, and Sheridan, for two months, recruited and rested his cavalry, using it only as an army of observation. About the first of March, with a force of about 9,000 men, well mounted and disciplined, he moved forward

under instructions from General Grant, to destroy the Virginia Central railroad, and the James River canal, the two arteries of supply for the rebels at Richmond and Petersburg, and then strike at, and if possible, capture Lynchburg, and either join Sherman at Goldsboro, or returning to Winchester, descend thence to City Point. The destruction of the railroad and canal were thoroughly performed, but, delayed by heavy rains, he found that Lynchburg was probably too strong to be attacked, and as every route of communication between that city and Richmond was broken, its garrison could not render any assistance either to Lee or Johnston. He had captured Early's remaining force of 1,600 men at Waynesboro; and now, instead of returning to Winchester, or going on to join Sherman, he resolved to march past Richmond, to join the Army of the Potomac. The resolve was a bold one, for he knew Longstreet was on the watch for him, and would show him no mercy, if he could have a fair opportunity of attacking him. Nevertheless, he made the march, fooled Longstreet, and arrived safely at City Point, having completely desolated the country through which he passed, and destroyed property, estimated by the rebels themselves, at over $50,000,000.

And now came the end of the war, and in its closing scenes, so far as the rebel army of Northern Virginia was concerned, Sheridan had the most conspicuous part. Arriving at City Point on the 25th of March, 1865, he was directed by General Grant to move, on the 29th, southwestward by way of Reams' station to Dinwiddie Court-house, and from thence either strike the Southside railroad at Burkesville station, some forty miles distant; or, if it should seem best, support the infantry, one or two corps of which should, in that case, be put under his command, in an attempt, by way of Halifax road, to cross Hatcher's run at the point which had been held since February. He

chose, after reconnoissance, the latter plan, and pushed on toward Dinwiddie, and connected with the left of the fifth corps, on the Boydton road. The enemy were found strongly intrenched at Five Forks, about six miles west of the Boydton plank-road, and also held in some force the White Oak road, by which the Five Forks were approached from the east. On the 31st of March there was heavy fighting all along the line. The fifth corps, or rather two divisions of it, were driven back in some disorder on the White Oak road, and a part of Sheridan's cavalry were separated from the main body, and his whole force imperilled. By dismounting his cavalry in front of Dinwiddie Court-house, and fighting desperately till late at night, he succeeded in holding his position, and the two contending forces lay on their arms through the night. The next morning, April 1st, the fifth corps, now under his command, did not advance as he expected, and his enemy of the night before having retreated to Five Forks, he followed, and finding the fifth corps, directed them to assault when he gave the order, and completed his arrangements for carrying Five Forks by a simultaneous assault in front and on both flanks. In this assault the fifth corps participated. It was successful, after some hard fighting, and the rebel troops who were not either slain, wounded or prisoners, were driven off westward so far as to be unable to return to aid in the defence of Petersburg. Being dissatisfied, perhaps without quite sufficient cause, with the management of General G. K. Warren, the commander of the fifth corps, during the day, General Sheridan relieved him of his command, and ordered General Griffin to take his place. The two men were so unlike in their temperament and modes of thought, though both brave and patriotic officers, that they could hardly have been expected to work well together.

Sheridan followed up his successes the following day, by hammering the enemy's line along the Southside railroad, and an assault being made at the same time on the defences of Petersburg, that city and Richmond were evacuated, and the rebel army fled along the route of the Southside railroad and the Appomattox river toward Appomattox Court-house, pursued relentlessly by Sheridan, who acted on the Donnybrook Fair principle, and whenever he saw a rebel head, hit it. There were some sharp actions, for the rebels were fighting in sheer despair; but finding their trains captured and themselves brought to bay, without hope, at Appomattox Court-house, they surrendered, and the war in Virginia was over.

But not yet was our cavalry general to find rest. He was ordered at once to Texas, with a large force, to bring the rebels there, who still held out, to terms. E. Kirby Smith, the rebel commander of the Trans-Mississippi Department, surrendered about the time of his arrival, and, with his surrender, the war closed. On the 27th of June, 1865, General Sheridan was appointed commander of the military Division of the Gulf, embracing the departments of Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas.

To preserve order in this division, so recently in rebellion, was a difficult task, the more difficult because the acting President was not true to his pledges, but encouraged the rebels, who at first were disposed to yield, to raise their heads again in defiance. But General Sheridan proved himself the man for the occasion. He was unfortunately absent in Texas when the riot and massacre occurred in New Orleans, but his prompt and decided action in regard to it, his denunciation of the course of the mayor and police, even when he knew that they were in favor with the President, his removal of them from office, and with them of others who obstructed reconstruction, and the thorough

loyalty he manifested all the way through, endeared him greatly to the nation. In Texas, too, he had his troubles: a disloyal governor was placed in power by the abortive reconstruction plan of Mr. Johnson, and when Congress armed Sheridan with the needed power, he removed him as promptly as he had done the rebel mayor and treacherous governor of Louisiana.

There were border difficulties to encounter, also; many of the rebel officers had escaped to Mexico, and most of them were in Maximilian's service. Like his chief—General Grant—General Sheridan's sympathies were wholly with the Juarez or Republican party in Mexico; but our relations with France were such that we could only give them our moral, not our military, support. Demagogues of both the Republican and Imperial parties did their best to involve us in the *imbroglio* in some way, and one of Sheridan's subordinate commanders was so unwise as to cross the Rio Grande, at Matamoras, on the invitation of one of the guerrilla chiefs, and mingle in the fray. For this he was promptly removed from command, and General Sheridan exhibited so much prudence and discretion in the whole affair as to receive the approval of all parties.

That Andrew Johnson should not be pleased with so straightforward and loyal a commander was to be expected; and notwithstanding the earnest protest of General Grant, he removed him in August, 1867, from the command of the Fifth District, and ordered him to command on the plains, where he would have only Indians to contend with. Before proceeding to his new command, however, Major-General Sheridan, by permission of General Grant, visited the East, and was everywhere received with ovations and honor by the people, who were duly mindful of his great services in war and peace.

Returning in the summer of 1868 to his new command, one for which, from his thorough knowledge of the Indian ways and Indian languages, he was well adapted, General Sheridan

was successful in averting a threatened Indian war, and in pacifying the wily Sioux chiefs. Soon after the inauguration of President Grant, he was promoted to the Lieutenant-Generalship, at the same time that General Sherman succeeded to the Generalship. He was assigned to the command of the Military Division of the Missouri, embracing the Military Departments of Dakota, the Missouri, the Platte, and Texas, and having its headquarters first at St. Louis, and afterward at Chicago. Soon after the commencement of the Franco-German War, Lieutenant-General Sheridan visited Europe, and was an interested spectator of several of the great battles of that war. On his return he resumed his command of the Military Division of the Missouri, and at the great fire in Chicago, October 7th and 8th, and subsequently, he rendered invaluable service in subduing the progress of the destruction, in aiding, protecting and sheltering the tens of thousands of sufferers from the great conflagration. Since General Sherman's absence in Europe, General Sheridan has been acting General-in-Chief of the United States Army, a most decided advance to have been made in ten years, from a lieutenant of a company to the highest military command in the nation.

In person Lieutenant-General Sheridan is small, being barely five feet six inches in height. His body is stout, his limbs rather

MAJOR-GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE.

TO achieve success where all before him had failed, to retain command where, from unreadiness, incapacity, or lack of skill and foresight, all his predecessors had been compelled to relinquish it, and without extraordinary brilliancy or genius, still, by his soldier-like bearing and his manly and irreproachable conduct, to win the esteem and respect of all who were under his command, such are the claims which the last commander of the army of the Potomac presents to our regard. GEORGE GORDON MEADE was born in 1815, during the temporary residence of his parents at Cadiz, in Spain. His father, Richard W. Meade, was a citizen of Philadelphia, and, while engaged in mercantile pursuits in Spain, was intrusted by the United States Government with the adjustment of certain claims against that country. He filled the offices of Consul and Navy Agent of the United States most creditably, and the cession of Florida—to prevent whose secession the son subsequently contributed so much—was the result mainly of his efforts. Shortly after his birth, the parents of young Meade returned to Philadelphia, where his youthful days were spent. When a boy, he attended the school at Georgetown, taught by the present Chief Justice Chase. The parents, having two sons, Richard W. and the subject of this sketch, determined to devote them to the service of their country. The elder was, therefore,

educated for the Navy, which he entered in 1826, while George was destined for the Army, and accordingly entered the Military Academy, near Philadelphia, and, in 1831, the Academy at West Point, whence he graduated with honor in 1835. The same year we find him a second lieutenant in the third artillery, in Florida, in the Seminole war. The state of his health induced him to resign his commission in 1836, and he became engaged in civil engineering; but, in 1842, he again entered the service as second lieutenant in the corps of Topographical Engineers, and in that capacity served in the Mexican war. During this campaign he served on the staff of General Taylor, and afterward on that of General Scott, distinguishing himself at Palo Alto and Monterey, and receiving, as an acknowledgment of his gallantry, a brevet of first lieutenant, dating from September 23, 1846; and also, upon his return to Philadelphia, a splendid sword from his townsmen. During the interval between the Mexican war and the rebellion, having been promoted to a full first lieutenancy in August, 1851, and to a captaincy of engineers in May, 1856, he was engaged with the particular duties of his department, more especially in the survey of the northern lakes; but upon the call to arms in 1861, he was ordered east, and upon the organization of the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps, under the three years' call, Captain Meade was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and placed in command of the second brigade, with General McCall as division-general, his commission dating August 31, 1861. After wintering with the division at Tenallytown, and helping to erect Fort Pennsylvania, they crossed the Potomac into Virginia during the early part of 1862, and became a portion of the Army of the Potomac. When this army began to move upon Manassas, during March of that year, General Meade's brigade formed a portion of the second division of McDowell's first army corps, and with this corps he remained

after that general was made commander of the Department of the Shenandoah. On the 18th of June, 1862, General Meade's rank in the regular army was advanced to that of major of topographical engineers, and subsequently he was confirmed with the same rank in the newly organized engineer corps of the United States army. About this time the division of Pennsylvania Reserves was added to the Army of the Potomac, on the Peninsula. General Meade took part in the battle of Mechanicsville, June 26, 1862, and in the battle of Gaines' Mills, June 27, he fought so bravely as to be nominated for a brevet of lieutenant-colonel of the regular army for his distinguished services. After the capture of Generals McCall and Reynolds, he took charge of the division. In the battle of New Market Cross Roads, June 30, General Meade was struck by a ball in his side, inflicting a painful wound; but quickly rose from his bed of suffering, and was again at the head of his division. During the Maryland campaign he also distinguished himself at the head of the Pennsylvania Reserves. At Antietam, when General Hooker was wounded, General Meade took charge of a corps, and fought bravely the remainder of the day, receiving a slight wound and having two horses killed under him. During the fearful battle of Fredericksburg, he held charge of the second division of the first army corps, and fought in Franklin's left wing. He led his men boldly up to the rebel works, and doubtless would have captured them had he been properly supported; but after losing his brigade commanders, several of his field and line officers, and fifteen hundred men, he, with the rest of the army, was obliged to retire to the other side of the river. Two days after this eventful battle, General Meade superseded General Butterfield in the command of the fifth army corps. To enable him to hold this, he was promoted to be a major-general of volunteers, with rank and commission from Nov. 29,

1862. In the second day of the action at Chancellorsville, the corps of Meade and Reynolds were held in reserve by General Hooker, and on them he relied for covering the crossing of the Rapidan, when it was finally decided to withdraw to the north bank. They performed their part admirably and with but little loss. Lee's army, now re-inforced and flushed with recent victories easily achieved, took the offensive once more, and speedily made its way into Maryland and Pennsylvania, followed by Hooker. On the 28th of June, 1863, the Army of the Potomac was in the vicinity of Frederick, in Maryland, when a messenger arrived from Washington, relieving General Hooker, and investing General Meade with the command of the army. Selected thus suddenly, without solicitation on his own part, and by the unanimous desire of the other corps commanders, he assumed command with a deep sense of the responsibilities thrust upon him, and made the best disposition of his troops in his power for the speedily impending battle. The following is a copy of his general order issued upon this occasion:

"HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC,
"June 28, 1863.

"*General Order, No.* 66.

"By direction of the President of the United States, I hereby assume the command of the Army of the Potomac. As a soldier, in obeying this order, an order totally unexpected and unsolicited, I have no promises or pledges to make. The country looks to this army to relieve it from the devastation and disgrace of a hostile invasion. Whatever fatigues and sacrifices we may be called upon to undergo, let us have in view constantly the magnitude of the interests involved, and let each man determine to do his duty, leaving to an all-controlling Providence the decision of the contest. It is with just diffidence that I relieve, in the command of this army, an eminent and accomplished soldier, whose name must ever appear conspicuous in the history of its achievements; but I rely upon the

hearty support of my companions in arms to assist me in the discharge of the duties of the important trust which has been confided to me.

"GEORGE G. MEADE,
"Major-general Commanding.

"S. F. BARSTOW Assistant Adjutant-general."

General Meade at once put his columns in motion, and in three days his advance and that of the enemy met at Gettysburg, and commenced the conflict. The meeting at that place was by accident, but the advantages of the position were such, that instead of withdrawing his advance, upon meeting the enemy, he ordered his whole army up to their support. Three days of terrible warfare, and great loss of life upon both sides, resulted in the defeat of the enemy, and the abandonment of the northern invasion. It was the first substantial victory gained by the Army of the Potomac, and though the editors of the northern papers, and some of the impatient members of the Government, were inclined to blame General Meade for not making more ardent pursuit, and falling upon the foe, who was represented, as usual, as thoroughly demoralized, subsequent events have shown that, in this case, "discretion was the better part of valor." Pursuit, vigorous and effective pursuit, was made, and a considerable portion of the enemy's train was captured, but his retreat had been at the same time swift and orderly, and so thoroughly disciplined were the rebel troops, that an attack upon them by any pursuing force which could be brought up promptly, must inevitably have resulted in a disastrous repulse. The problem whether the attack should have been made, however, is one of a tactical nature, requiring for its solution special and professional knowledge. It is, therefore, one of those questions regarding which public opinion is necessarily worthless. One thing is certain, the emphasis with which

the corps commanders pronounced against the assault, should carry with it great weight, understanding, as they did, the relative situations of the opposing forces.

After Lee had crossed the Potomac, General Meade hoped to bring him to battle before he should pass the mountains, but at Manassas gap, where an excellent opportunity occurred, his plans were frustrated by the dilatory movements of a corps commander, who had the advance. For some time after this, the opposing armies lay in a state of inactivity, near the Rapidan, from the necessity of heavy detachments being drawn off to other points. In October, Lee attempted, by a flank movement, to sever Meade's communications; but the latter was too quick for him. Making a retrograde movement as far as Centreville, to meet this effort, he followed Lee in return, and thus the two armies resumed nearly the same position as before the movement commenced. In the fighting accompanying these operations, the Union army had the advantage, and at Bristow station, the rear-guard, under Warren, by a rapid movement won the field, and defeated the enemy. Late in November, Meade undertook the boldest move that the Army of the Potomac had ever yet made. Leaving his base, with ten days' rations, he crossed the river, hoping to interpose between the wings of Lee's army, now in winter quarters, and stretched over a wide extent of country. The enemy, however, was found to present so formidable a front at Mine Run, behind intrenchments, that it was thought best to forego the contemplated attack, and our forces were again withdrawn to the north bank, and went into cantonments for the season. When General Grant, as lieutenant-general, assumed the direction of all the forces, his headquarters were with the Army of the Potomac. General Meade retained the immediate command of that army, and during the severe campaigns of 1864–5, led it on the bloody

fields of the Wilderness, Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, and the region round about Petersburg and Richmond, winning the approval of Lieutenant-General Grant, who in recommending his confirmation as a major-general in the regular army, spoke of him in these emphatic words:

"General Meade is one of our truest men, and ablest officers. He has been constantly with the Army of the Potomac, confronting the strongest, best appointed, and most confident army of the south. He, therefore, has not had the same opportunity of winning laurels so distinctly marked, as have fallen to the lot of other generals. But I defy any man to name a commander who would do more than Meade has done, with the same chances. General Meade was appointed at my solicitation, after a campaign the most protracted, and covering more severely contested battles than any of which we have any account in history. I have been with General Meade through the whole campaign; and I not only made the recommendation upon a conviction that this recognition of his services was fully won, but that he was eminently qualified for the command such rank would entitle him to."

Congress confirmed the appointment, dating his commission from August 18th, 1864. At the close of the war General Meade returned for a brief season to his home in Philadelphia, where he was received with the highest honors. He was soon after appointed to the command of the military division of the Atlantic, in which were included all the States on the Atlantic coast, and which was perhaps the most important of the military departments. His management of this department was able and judicious, but without many events of note. He acted promptly and wisely, under the direction of the Lieutenant general, in suppressing the Fenian movement for the invasion of Canada. When, in the autumn of 1867, President Johnson

having become dissatisfied with General Pope's administration in Georgia, Alabama and Florida, in consequence of that general's furthering rather than hindering the enforcement of the congressional plan of reconstruction, he removed him and transferred General Meade to the command of that military district, he mistook as he had so often done before, his man. General Meade is thoroughly loyal, and obedient to the laws, and finding that the congressional plan was the law of the land, he obeyed it as strictly, and promptly, as his predecessor had done; even taking measures, such as the removal of the State provisional officers of Georgia for contumacy and insubordination, at which General Pope had hesitated. He has maintained a dignified and honorable course in regard to the Constitutional Conventions of the States of his district, and whatever may be his own political views, he has sought only to administer the laws faithfully, without fear or favor. The Constitutional Convention of Florida, which at one time was on the point of breaking into two impotent factions, was, by his counsels and efforts, harmonized, and the successful future of the re-organized State assured.

In July, 1868, the "Department of the South" was reconstructed, and General Meade placed in command of it. He retained this position until March, 1869, when President Grant made a new and better distribution of the army commands, and assigned General Meade to the command of the Military Division of the Atlantic, embracing the Department of the East, and that of the Lakes; his headquarters were to be at Philadelphia. This command the general still retains, though from the subsequent discontinuance of the Division of the South and its consolidation with the other divisions, the territory under his charge has been considerably increased.

General Meade is a scholarly and accomplished officer, some-

what cold and quiet in his manner, usually cautious and slow in his movements, never assuming or boastful; sometimes inclined to severity, and not very tolerant of commanding officers who were not educated at West Point; but a just and fair man, and one governed by principle. He is not a general who would rouse his troops to the highest enthusiasm by his personal magnetism, but one who would win their high respect and esteem. One of the best descriptions of his personal appearance we have seen is that given by an English writer, who was introduced to him soon after the battle of Gettysburg. "He is a very remarkable-looking man—tall, spare, of a commanding figure and presence; his manners easy and pleasant, but having much dignity. His head is partially bald, and is small and compact; but the forehead is high. He has the late Duke of Wellington class of nose; and his eyes, which have a serious, and almost sad expression, are rather sunken, or appear so, from the prominence of the curved nasal development. He has a decidedly patrician and distinguished appearance. I had some conversation with him, and of his recent achievements he spoke in a modest and natural way. He said that he had been very 'fortunate;' but was most especially anxious not to arrogate to himself any credit which he did not deserve. He said that the triumph of the Federal arms was due to the splendid courage of the Union troops, and also to the bad strategy, and rash and mad attacks made by the enemy. He said that his health was remarkably good and that he could bear almost any amount of physical fatigue. What he complained of was the intense mental anxiety occasioned by the great responsibility of his position."

General Meade, in 1840, married a daughter of Hon. John Sergeant, of Philadelphia, and has a large family.

MAJOR-GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK.

WINFIELD SCOTT HANCOCK, one of the most brilliant generals of the recent war, is the son of Benjamin Franklin Hancock and Elizabeth his wife, both natives of Montgomery county, Pennsylvania. In a retired part of this county, near Montgomery Square, he was born February 14th, 1824; when about four years old, his parents removed to Norristown, the county town, where his father took the charge of a school—although then preparing himself for the legal profession, which he afterwards practised with success.

Amid the pleasant scenes and associations of this thriving town, with parents possessing more than average education, intelligence and patriotism, he and his twin brother Hilary B., (now a lawyer in Minnesota) and a younger brother, John (afterward a Major in the Army of the Potomac), grew up surrounded by the best of social and religious influences. Among his playfellows he was naturally a leader, popular in juvenile musical matters, affectionate and social. At the village academy he was esteemed as truthful, obedient and courageous. With his elders he was an acceptable companion, on account of his modest and unassuming interest in matters and subjects usually uninteresting to boys of his age—and he seems to have developed, even at that early day, that aptitude for military pursuits and those scientific tastes and acquirements which may be considered as indicative of the probable course of his after life. Like many

another American boy, his first public appearance was as the reader of the Declaration of Independence, on a 4th of July celebration at Norristown, when he was but fifteen years old.

Nearly a year later he was unexpectedly nominated by Joseph Fornance, M. C., for a cadetship in the United States Military Academy at West Point, which he entered July 1st, 1840, meeting there with many young men (mostly his seniors) who have since distinguished themselves on American battle-fields. He graduated from West Point, June 30th, 1844, ranking No. 18 in his class; he was brevetted July 1st, as second lieutenant in the 6th United States Regiment of Infantry; and June 18th, 1846, received his commission of full second lieutenancy in the same regiment, stationed at Fort Lawson, on the Red River of the South. Here and at Fort Washita (an extreme Western post) he continued until, on the outbreak of the Mexican War, in the spring of 1847, his regiment went into actual service. He was at Churubusco, August 20th, 1847, under General Scott; there, at the head of his platoon, he took a part in the desperately contested hand-to-hand fight of Molino del Rey, September 8th, 1847; as, also, in the attack, on the 13th, upon the castle of Chapultepec, and the three days' fighting which resulted in a glorious victory to the American arms. He was at that time regimental adjutant, was repeatedly mentioned in the official reports of the day; and, in August, 1848, was brevetted first lieutenant for gallantry in these actions, dating from 20th August, 1847. He was also present when the Mexican commissioners entered the American camp, with proposals of peace—which were rejected by General Scott—and he shared the proud triumph of the 14th September, 1847, when that general, at the head of 6000 war-worn veterans, entered the City of Mexico, as its captors. The war closed soon after, and Hancock—serving for a time with General Cadwallader, at Toluca, and having been

advanced to the position of regimental quartermaster, was one of the last Americans who left the soil of Mexico. His services, together with those of other Pennsylvania soldiers, were appropriately acknowledged by the Pennsylvania legislature, in a series of resolutions, of which a copy was presented to him. He was next stationed at Fort Crawford, Prairie du Chien, Wis., until the summer of 1849; then, until the autumn of 1855, he served as regimental adjutant, on the staff of his old Mexican war colonel, Brigadier-General J. S. Clarke, at Jefferson Barracks and St. Louis, Mo.

On the 24th of January, 1850, he married Almira, the daughter of Mr. Samuel Russell, a wealthy and highly esteemed mer chant of that city; and, in November 1855, was made assistant quartermaster, with rank of captain.

During 1856, he was stationed as quartermaster at Fort Myers, near St. Augustine, Florida; and, in November of the same year, was assigned to duty in the United States quartermaster general's department, for the Western district, in Utah Territory, and accompanied General Harney on his expedition to Kansas, and the regions beyond. From Utah, he was transferred, still in the department, to Benicia, California, where he was brought into intimate social and official relations with that sterling soldier, General Silas Casey; thence, to the old Spanish town of Los Angelos, Lower California. Here he remained two years, attaining a great degree of personal influence in that region, so that, when, in 1861, the civil rebellion broke out, and certain restless spirits tried to turn the Golden State into the secession stream, his voice and example, as well as his cool, calm courage and caution, contributed most powerfully to stem the tide of rebellion, and to hold that grand young commonwealth firmly to its loyalty to the Union.

But he burned for a more active part in the defence of that

Union, and, at his own request, was transferred to the East. Reaching New York city in September, 1861, he stopped not even to greet his parents, but hastened directly to Washington, full of the one idea so clearly expressed in the following extract from a letter written to a friend at the time. "My politics are of a practical kind. The integrity of the Country. The Supremacy of the Federal Government. An honorable peace, or none at all." He was immediately assigned to duty as chief quartermaster, on the staff of General Robert Anderson, then in Kentucky; and, while making his preparations to go, was, most unexpectedly to himself, nominated by General McClellan, as a brigadier-general. The appointment was made, entirely on its merits, by President Lincoln, 23d September, 1861, and he was given the command of a brigade in General W. F. Smith's Division, holding an advanced position on the Potomac, and did good service in foraging, reconnoitring, etc., in the face of the enemy, and in a country overrun by rebel emissaries and spies. In the advance of April, 1862, towards Yorktown, Hancock's brigade took an active and foremost part, his artillery experience coming into good play. Several times he led his brigade in person, in the open field; and, at the battle of Williamsburg, just at the set of sun, and during a pouring rain, with the enemy massed in his front, and with recent and yawning chasms amid the ranks of his own men, he rode to the centre of his lines, and quickly passing the words "fix bayonets," paused a moment, then, waving his hat, uttered the order to his officers, "Gentlemen, charge." Following their brave leader who was riding straight upon the enemy at the top of his speed, the bayonet charge of that little band was the decisive stroke of that day's battle. The enemy were whirled helplessly before it, the day was suddenly crowned with victory, and Hancock's character for "dash," was established from that moment. For this and other services, he was bre-

vetted Major in the United States Army, dating from May 4th, 1862.

In the progress of the Union army up the Peninsula, his brigade was constantly in the advance—his duties being particularly arduous in the pestilential swamps of the Chickahominy, where he shared in all the dangers and fatigues of the principal attacks, and rendered important aid by his regular army experience in conducting the safe withdrawal of the men under his command. At Gaines' Mill, while in the extreme advance, he met and overcame the terrific fire of five massed rebel regiments, defeating their purpose. At the brief, but sanguinary fight of Garnett's Hill, he met and repulsed a savage onslaught made by Toombs and the Georgia troops, and held this position until near the close of the day (June 28th), when he rejoined Smith's command and took part in the obstinately contested battle of Savage's Station (29th), and that of White Oak Swamp on the 30th. For his services at Garnett's Hill he was recommended for appointment as Major-General of Volunteers; and subsequently for three brevets in the (regular) United States Army, for meritorious conduct during the Peninsula campaign. June 27th, 1862 he was brevetted Colonel in United States Army. On the 17th September, General Hancock commanded a division on the field of Antietam, Md.

When the Army of the Potomac, in October and November 1862, marched to Falmouth, Va., Hancock's column was on the extreme right, and in perfect order, and at the battle of Fredericksburg, December 13th, his men crossed the river in open boats, under fire, scaled the banks, drove off the enemy, and formed the pontoon bridge, taking, also, conspicuous part in the subsequent heavy fighting of that disastrous day. On the 29th of November, on the nomination of General Burnside, he was appointed Major-General of Volunteers. In the battle of Chan-

cellorsville, May 2d—4th, 1863, Hancock's skill turned the fortunes of the day; and he was soon after appointed by President Lincoln to the command of the Second Army Corps.

When the rebel advance into Pennsylvania was so suddenly checked at Gettysburg, July 1st—3d, 1863, Hancock was present with this gallant corps, near the centre of the Union lines; and, he was, at first, in command of the field. His dispositions and plans, made during the critical interval which elapsed before the arrival of Meade, were so admirable, that that gallant general, on his arrival, saw no reason to change them. On the third day of that great battle, Hancock was wounded severely, but would not be taken to the rear. He was obliged to go home to recover from his wound; was received at Norristown by his fellow-citizens, and borne to his home on a stretcher, on the shoulders of soldiers of the Invalid Corps. His recovery was gradual but sure—and the admiration felt for his patriotic services were manifested by numerous presentations, receptions, etc. His Norristown friends gave him a service of nine pieces of gold and silver plate ornamented with the trefoil badge of the Second Corps, and valued at $1600. When he had so far recovered as to be able to travel to West Point, he was honored with public receptions in his native county, at New York, West Point, and at St. Louis, where he went to see his family, and where, also, he received from the Western Sanitary Fair a superb sword.

Ordered to Washington, December 15th, 1863, he promptly obeyed, although his wound was not yet healed, and was detailed to the important duty of increasing the ranks of the army by his personal presence and exertions. He undertook the raising of 50,000 men for his corps (headquarters at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania) with good success—the great cities of New York, Albany, and Boston, offering him every public and private

facility. At Philadelphia, a public reception was given him; resolutions were offered by the city government, and the rare honor was his of having Independence Hall thrown open to his use; on the 22d of February he reviewed the volunteer troops of the city; in New York City, the Governor's Room in the City Hall was placed at his disposal; at Albany, the Legislature tendered an official testimonial of respect, as, also, did the Legislature of Massachusetts and the merchants of Boston. In March, 1864, he was again ordered to the front, and led his old corps, the second, again in the advance, under Grant, upon Culpeper Court House, Virginia, participating in the battles of the Wilderness. At Spottsylvania, he made a magnificent charge at the head of his whole corps, and proved himself the man of the day, which he closed with the following brief despatch to General Grant. "General, I have captured from thirty to forty guns. I have finished up Johnson, and am now going into Early."

At Petersburg, Virginia, he personally rallied the Second Corps, and his force was always well in hand; no matter how much extended his lines were, they always responded promptly and perfectly to his orders, and he handled them with the precision, force and ease with which a single regiment is usually manœuvred. For gallant conduct in the Wilderness, at Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, and in all the operations of the army under Grant, President Lincoln made him Brigadier-General of the United States Army, commission dated 12th August, 1864. From the Mississippi Valley Sanitary Fair he received a splendid sword; from the Great Central Sanitary Fair, at Philadelphia, a full set of horse equipments, value $500; a residence in Philadelphia, from some citizens; and $15,000 placed at his disposal by the Coal Exchange of the same city for the purpose of recruiting his corps, while St. Louis gave him an elegant sword.

He remained in command of the Second Army Corps, though partially disabled by the repeated breaking out afresh of his old wound received at the battle of Gettysburg, until November 25th, 1864, when he was compelled to ask to be relieved, and for the next three months was at Washington organizing, as far as his infirm health would permit, the army corps of veterans. He was then put in command of the Department of West Virginia, and temporarily of the Middle Military Division, and of the Army of the Shenandoah, in which he continued till July 18th, 1865, when he was transferred to the Middle Department, and in August 1866, to the Department of the Missouri; in March, 1867, he took command of an expedition against the Indians of the plains.

Meantime other promotions had come to General Hancock; on the 13th of March, 1865, he had been brevetted Major-General in the United States Army for gallant and meritorious conduct at the battle of Spottsylvania; and on the 26th of July, 1866, had been commissioned Major-General in the army.

While in command of the Department of the Missouri, his intercourse with both the President and General Grant had been very cordial; but in August, 1867, President Johnson determined to remove General Sheridan from the command of the Fifth Military District, which comprised Louisiana and Texas, and appointed General Hancock his successor. The latter could not immediately enter on his duties; but in November, 1867, he went to New Orleans and took command, revoking immediately several of General Sheridan's orders, and issued a special order, of which the second item (which we give below) was the most important portion.*

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* "*Second.* The General commanding is gratified to learn that peace and quiet reign in this department. It will be his purpose to preserve this condition of things. As a means to this great end, he regards the maintenance

Of the abstract truth and justice of the opinions here laid down, there can be no doubt. But as to their practical operation in this case there were two important questions, viz.: whether the people of Louisiana and Texas were at this time so far reduced to a peaceful condition that they might safely be left to the control of the civil authority alone, while the two conflicting elements of society were yet in open hostility to each other, and whether General Hancock, an entire stranger, was competent, at the very day of his coming among them, to decide a question of such importance.

On these two questions there was a conflict of opinion between General Hancock and his superior officer, General Grant. President Johnson sanctioned General Hancock's course; but General Grant revoked his special orders, for carrying out

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of the civil authorities in the faithful execution of the laws, as the most efficient under existing circumstances. In war it is indispensable to repel force by force, and overthrow and destroy opposition to authority; but when insurrectionary force has been overthrown and peace established, and the civil authorities are ready and willing to perform their duties, the military power should cease to lead, and the civil administration resume its natural and rightful dominion. Solemnly impressed with these views, the General announces that the great principles of American liberty still are the lawful inheritance of this people, and ever should be. The right of trial by jury, the habeas corpus, the liberty of the press, the freedom of speech, and the natural rights of persons and the rights of property must be preserved. Free institutions, while they are essential to the prosperity and happiness of the people, always furnish the strongest inducements to peace and order. Crimes and offences committed in the district must be referred to the consideration and judgment of the regular civil authorities, and these tribunals will be supported in their lawful jurisdiction. Should there be violations of existing laws, which are not inquired into by the civil magistrates, or should failures in the administration of justice by the courts be complained of, the cases will be reported to these headquarters, when such orders will be made as may be deemed necessary. While the General thus indicates his purpose to respect the liberties of the people, he wishes all to understand that armed insurrections and forcible resistance to laws will be instantly suppressed by arms."

the measures indicated above, and annulling the previous orders of General Sheridan and his own subordinate, General Mower.

The controversy between General Hancock and General Grant continued for about two months; but finally terminated in General Hancock's asking to be relieved from his command in January, 1868. He was made commander of the new military department of Washington, including Maryland, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the District of Columbia, by President Johnson It is worthy of notice that early in the ensuing summer the States of Louisiana and Texas, as well as several other of the Southern States, were readmitted to the Union by Act of Congress, and placed under a strictly civil administration, as General Hancock had insisted should be done.

General Hancock retained his new command until the inauguration of President Grant, when, by the new arrangement of military commands, he was assigned to the Military Department of Dakota, embracing that Territory and part of Montana. There was an unpleasant state of feeling between him and President Grant, growing out of the Louisiana troubles, and he regarded this assignment of command, as he well might, as a virtual banishment. Subsequent correspondence has made the matter no better. General Hancock is still commander of the Department of Dakota, and though senior Major-General in his Military Division, he was, during the late absence for nearly a year of Lieutenant-General Sheridan, put under the command of one of his own juniors.

In personal appearance, General Hancock is decidedly one of the most dignified and imposing of our military officers of high rank. Of fine stature, and an intellectual, thoughtful face, a man evidently born to command, courteous, and gentlemanly in his manners, he possesses in a large degree that personal mag

netism which enables him to exert a powerful influence over the men he leads. He is destined yet to exert a powerful influence in our national affairs. By the death of Generals Thomas and Halleck he stands next to the highest rank as a Major-General in the army of the United States.

MAJOR-GENERAL JOHN McALLISTER SCHOFIELD.

JOHN McALLISTER SCHOFIELD, the son of Rev. James Schofield, was born September 29th, 1831, in Chautauqua county, N. Y., and in 1843, when twelve years old, removed with his father's family to Illinois. From this State he was nominated and entered as a cadet in the United States Military Academy at West Point, graduating from that institution in 1853 with the rank of seventh, in the same class as Sheridan and J. B. McPherson, with a brevet second lieutenancy in the Second Artillery, in which he passed two years, partly at Fort Moultrie, S. C., and partly at Fort Cass, Fla. He was then ordered to the West Point Academy as Instructor in Natural Philosophy, a position which occupied his time for the next five years.

In 1860, he obtained leave to occupy the chair of Natural Philosophy in Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. Soon the War of the Civil Rebellion opened, and the young professor was detailed by the War Department to muster the Missouri troops into the United States service, being at the same time appointed Major of the 1st Missouri Infantry, his regular army rank being then that of captain, to which he passed by regular steps since his brevet of second lieutenant with which he had left West Point. After the battle of Booneville he was made Assistant Adjutant-General to General Lyon, shared in that chieftain's success at White Creek, and was by his side, when he

fell—at the moment of victory. "Wherever the battle most fiercely raged," wrote Major Strong, in his official report, "there was General Lyon; and there, too, was Major Schofield, his principal staff-officer. The coolness and equanimity with which he moved from point to point carrying orders, was the theme of universal conversation. I cannot speak too highly of the invaluable service Major Schofield rendered by the confidence his conduct inspired."

His gallantry had its reward in his appointment, November 21st, 1861, as Brigadier-General of Volunteers, and his assignment to duty in command of the Missouri Militia, authorized by the War Department to be raised for service during the war. When General Halleck went to Pittsburg Landing, about four-fifths of that great State was placed under Schofield.

In June, 1862, the whole State was set apart as the Military District of Missouri, under his charge, and shortly after, the army of the frontier, operating in Missouri and Kansas, was committed to him, and he struck out boldly against all the organized rebel forces in that section, whipping them soundly in a severe engagement at Maysville, near Pea Ridge (October 22d), and driving them, a routed rabble, beyond the Boston Mountains and back into the valley of the Arkansas River. He had rapidly developed the salient points of a good soldier, and promotion followed close upon his footsteps.

In November, 1862, he was appointed by the President a Major-General of Volunteers, and continued in command of the "Army of the Frontier" in South western Missouri till April, 1863. The politicians of Missouri, dissatisfied with his just and straightforward administration of affairs, interfered at Washington, and prevented his confirmation; but President Lincoln reappointed him in April, 1863. He was assigned to the command of the third division of the Fourteenth Army Corps, Army

of the Cumberland, April 20th, 1863, but transferred on the 13th of May following to the command of the Department of the Missouri, which involved the command of the Missouri State Militia, and captured Fort Smith and Little Rock, in Arkansas. He rendered material assistance to General Grant in the siege of Vicksburg. This command he held until January, 1864, when he was relieved of his command in Missouri, and on the 9th of February following made commander of the Department and Army of the Ohio, known at that time as the Twenty-third Army Corps. This corps, on the sixth of May following (the day when Sherman commenced his Atlanta campaign), numbered 13,559 effective troops, but was subsequently reënforced. In all the battles in the Atlanta campaign, and they were many, and some of them very severe, General Schofield took an active and honorable part. His command, though only one-ninth of the entire force, was never found wanting whenever any brave or daring enterprise was to be undertaken; and it would be hard to say which of Sherman's army commanders, Thomas, McPherson, or Schofield, best deserved the high encomiums which their grim but just chief bestowed equally on all.

Atlanta won and dismantled, and some apprehensions being entertained from Hood's raid into Tennessee, General Sherman despatched General Thomas, with General Schofield as second in command, to look after the Rebel General. Schofield repaired at once to Nashville, and learning that Hood was crossing the Tennessee at Florence, set out to meet him and obstruct and delay his progress until General Thomas could collect a more adequate force, and especially a larger cavalry force, for the defence of Nashville and Tennessee. Skirmishing with Hood continually, from the 14th to the 30th of November, General Schofield had a sharp action at Pulaski, another at Columbia, and

on the 30th of November fought the battle of Franklin, Tennessee, one of the severest in the Western campaigns. His own force was greatly outnumbered by that of the enemy, and the result, amid terrible slaughter, was a drawn battle. But Schofield had gained his point; he had so thoroughly delayed and crippled Hood's army that General Thomas had been able to concentrate his troops at Nashville, and Tennessee was safe. Falling back upon Nashville by rapid marches, he succeeded in joining General Thomas with his command before Hood could overtake him. On the 15th and 16th of December, the battle of Nashville took place, and General Schofield, conspicuous as ever for his daring, had a full share in Hood's discomfiture, and pursued him relentlessly, till his troops, a disorganized and almost wholly disarmed mob, singly and by scores found their way across the Tennessee.

Spending no time in rest, General Schofield and his command were next ordered, *viâ* Cincinnati and Washington, to the mouth of Cape Fear River, N. C., arriving January 15, 1865. Here he took part in the capture of Fort Anderson and Wilmington, in the battle and occupation of Kinston, and on the 22d of March joined General Sherman at Goldsboro.

He was detailed to execute the military convention of capitulation of General J. E. Johnston's Rebel army, April 26, 1865, and was in command of the Department of North Carolina till June 21, 1865. He had been made a brigadier-general in the regular army, his commission dating from November 30, 1864, the day of the battle of Franklin. On the 13th of March, 1865, he was brevetted major-general in the regular army, and in 1867 was commissioned major-general in that army. From June 22, 1865, to August 16, 1866, he was on special duty in Europe. On his return he was put in command of the Department of the Potomac, and on the reorganization of the military

commands, March 13, 1867, was made commander of the First Military District (Virginia).

On the 23d of April, 1868, on the final resignation of Secretary Stanton, he was appointed Secretary of War, and held that position till March 11, 1869, performing its duties with eminent ability. Resigning this office, he was made commander of the Military Department of the Missouri, and on the death of General Thomas, transferred to the command of the Military Division of the Pacific, with headquarters at San Francisco. He still retains this command. In all the positions, military and civil, which General Schofield has been called to occupy, he has acquitted himself with the highest credit, making no failures and no blunders.

BRIGADIER-GENERAL OLIVER OTIS HOWARD.

BRIGADIER-GENERAL OLIVER OTIS HOWARD, "the Havelock of the American Union Army," was born at Leeds, Kennebec county, Maine, on the 8th of November, 1830, the eldest of three children of parents in moderate, but independent, circumstances. Working upon the farm until his tenth year, he was then, by his father's death, left in the care of an uncle, Hon. John Otis, of Hallowell, Maine. Having attained a good common-school education, he, in 1846, matriculated at Bowdoin College, from which he graduated at the head of his class in 1850. Entering immediately the United States Military Academy at West Point, he graduated from that institution in June, 1854, with the fourth rank in his class. He was assigned to the Ordnance Department, with brevet rank of second lieutenant, served in Texas and Florida, and was subsequently transferred to the United States arsenal at Augusta, Georgia; and from thence to the arsenal at Watervliet, Maine. On the 1st of July, 1855, he was made a second lieutenant by promotion; and on the 1st of July, 1857, promoted to be first lieutenant, and appointed Acting Assistant Professor of Mathematics at West Point, which position he held at the commencement of the rebellion. On the 28th of May, 1861, he resigned his professorship and accepted a commission as colonel of the third Maine volunteers, the first three years regiment that left that State; and, as senior colonel, led a bri-

gade at the battle of Bull Run, July 21, 1861. The gallantry and ability manifested on that occasion secured for him (September 3d) the rank of brigadier-general, and he was placed in command of a brigade in General Casey's provisional division, to which was then intrusted the charge of the national capital. In the following December, he was assigned to General Sumner's command, the first brigade of the first division of the second army corps, in McClellan's Peninsula campaign. At Fair Oaks, June 1, 1862, while gallantly leading a decisive charge, he was struck in the right arm by two bullets, one near the wrist and the other at the elbow; he did not leave the field, however, until wounded a second time, when he was obliged to go to the rear and submit to an amputation of the limb. In the words of a friend, "Weak and fainting from hemorrhage and the severe shock which his system had sustained, the next day he started for his home in Maine. He remained there only about two months, during which time he was not idle. Visiting various localities in his native State, he made patriotic appeals to the people to come forward and sustain the Government. Pale, emaciated, and with one sleeve tenantless, he stood up before them, the embodiment of all that is good and true and noble in manhood. He talked to them as only one truly loyal can talk—as one largely endowed with that patriotism which is a heritage of New England blood. Modesty, sincerity and earnestness characterized his addresses, and his fervent appeals drew hundreds around the national standard." Before he had recovered from his wound, and against the advice of his surgeon, he hastened to the front, and at the head of a brigade of the second (French's) division, (his own being temporarily commanded by General Caldwell,) he took part in the second battle of Bull Run; and in the retreat from Centreville he commanded the rear-guard. At Antietam he succeeded General Sedgwick, who was wounded, in com-

mand of his division. On the 13th of December, at the battle of Fredericksburg, he led his division, in support of General French's, in the heroic charge made upon the rebel position in the rear of that city. In this attempt—in which the Union troops, in the words of their commander, "did all that men could do—Howard's brigade alone lost nearly a thousand men."

During the succeeding winter he held the command of the second division of the second corps; and, in April, 1863, was confirmed as major-general of volunteers (his commission dating from the 29th of the preceding November), and was transferred to the command of the eleventh corps, thereby relieving General Sigel. His new command was composed of German troops, many of whom could not even speak the English language, and all enthusiastically devoted to their former commander, who, for some inscrutable governmental reason, had so suddenly been taken away from them. With these men, good and true soldiers, yet demoralized to a certain degree by the change of command, and before time had been afforded to him for re-organizing them or becoming better known to them, General Howard was fated to meet the first onset of the rebel attack at Chancellorsville. Under the unexpected and crushing blow, and despite the heroic endeavors of Howard himself, they broke and ran, causing a panic which had well nigh proved the irretrievable ruin of the whole Union army.

The eleventh and its commander keenly felt the dishonor of this day—but the noble-hearted and patient Lincoln's confidence in the subject of our sketch was unshaken, and when a change of commanders was urged, he simply replied, "Howard will bring it up to the work, only give him time." And splendidly did Howard and his men redeem their credit upon the battle-field of Gettysburg, on the first, second, and third of July, 1863. It was to his happy forethought, on the first day

of that battle, in seizing Cemetery Hill, that we may in a great measure, attribute the favorable results of the fighting on the two succeeding days. It "was one of those divine inspirations on which destinies turn," giving him a stronghold of defence and shelter, when, as he must have foreseen, and as happened three hours later, he was obliged to retire in the face of an enemy more than double his own number. And, on this hill, the natural centre of the Union lines, the eleventh corps, burning to wipe out the memory of Chancellorsville, met and terribly repulsed the brunt of the attack by the rebel General Ewell's division, at sunset of the second day. On the third day of this terrible fight, Howard's corps still held the same position, grimly watching the sublime panorama of battle which unrolled before them. "I have seen many men in action," wrote an eye-witness, "but never one so imperturbably cool as this general of the eleventh corps. I watched him closely as a minie whizzed overhead. I dodged, of course. I never expect to get over that habit. But I am confident that he did not move a muscle by the fraction of a hair's breadth." At last, however, came the furious final charge of the desperate veterans of Lee's army, recklessly bent on obtaining possession of Cemetery Hill. Two hundred and fifty cannon concentrated their unintermitted and terrific fire upon the Union centre (Howard's position) and the left—but Howard simply ordered one after another of his guns to be quiet, as if silenced by the enemy's fire, and his gunners flung themselves flat upon the ground. Suddenly, as the rebel line, in huge semicircular sweep, reached the Emmetsburg road, the Germans of the eleventh corps sprang to their guns, and along the whole front of the Union centre and left, more than four miles long—there rained such a storm of fiery, pitiless hail of death-bolts upon the advancing foe, as swept away not only the last hope of

the Confederate chieftain, but, almost literally, his best army. Gettysburg was won, and the North was saved. President Lincoln sent to Howard an autograph letter of thanks for his inestimable services, and Congress passed a vote of similar import. General Hancock having been severely wounded in this battle, the command of his corps (the second) was given to Howard.

In the fall of 1863, after the battle of Chickamauga, Generals Howard and Hooker, with their corps, were sent to reinforce Rosecrans, in Tennessee, and at Chattanooga came under the command of General Grant, who had then recently assumed the leadership of the Military Division of the Mississippi. Here it was, also, that Howard became acquainted with General Sherman, and laid the foundation of an intimacy which increased until the close of the war. Together they led their respective corps in the assault upon Fort Buckner, on the second day of the battle for the possession of Mission Ridge (November 25, 1863), and it was Howard's cavalry which contributed largely to the more complete discomfiture of the routed rebels, by the destruction of the Dalton and Cleveland railroad. In the long and severe march of Sherman, to the relief of General Burnside, at Knoxville, in December, 1863, General Howard bore a conspicuous part, winning the highest commendation for fidelity and intelligence from Sherman, who says, in his official report: "In General Howard throughout, I found a polished and Christian gentleman, exhibiting the highest and most chivalrous traits of the soldier." During the whole of General Sherman's march to Atlanta (May to August, 1864), General Howard and his men did splendid service. During the siege of that place, the brave and beloved General McPherson was killed on the 21st of July, and his command, that of the Army of the Tennessee, was given, by the President, at General Sherman's request, to

Major-General Howard. In the opening movement (on the 29th of August) of General Sherman's feint towards raising the siege of Atlanta, General Howard's column was fiercely attacked by S. D. Lee and Hardee's rebel corps, but repulsed them with terrible slaughter; and again, at Jonesboro, on the 31st of August, he dealt to Hood's army the last crushing blow, which drove him routed from Atlanta, thenceforth open to the Union troops.

In Sherman's "March to the Sea," from Atlanta to Savannah, Major-General Howard led the right wing, marching down the Macon road, destroying the railroad, and scattering the rebel cavalry—and passing through Jackson, Monticello, and Hillsboro, to Milledgeville, the capital of the State, where he was joined by the left wing of the army, under General Slocum. From Millen, the united army moved down on either bank of the Ogeechee river, and Howard's column, by the 8th of December, had reached and seized the Gulf railroad, within twenty miles of Savannah. On the night of the 9th, Howard communicated, by scouts, with a Union gunboat lying two miles below Fort McAllister—which shortly after fell into the hands of the Union troops—and Generals Sherman and Howard went down to the fleet in a small boat, where they met Admiral Dahlgren. Their great work was done, and Savannah was a splendid Christmas gift to the President, and to the nation.* Early in February

* A story is told of this boat voyage, which illustrates, to some extent, the characters of both General Sherman and General Howard. On finding the fort carried, and his army again in communication with the Union army and navy, General Sherman was much elated and jubilant, and soon after they embarked, he said: "I feel good; I want to sing or shout, but my musical education was neglected. Boys" (to the staff officers in the boat), "can't you sing something?" The "boys" seemed at a loss. "Howard," said the general, "I know you can sing, for I have heard you." "But, general," replied Howard, "I can't sing any thing but hymn

commenced the march through the Carolinas, in which Howard again led the right wing, moving towards Beaufort, and menacing Charleston—and finally entering Columbia, the capital of the Palmetto State. Then pressing into North Carolina, they met and whipped Johnston's rebel army at Averysboro, on the 20th of March, 1865; and while on the march for Raleigh, on the 12th of April, were delighted by the glad news of Lee's surrender.

Congress, at the close of the march of Sherman's army to the sea, in December 1864, promoted General Howard to the rank of brigadier general in the regular army, his commission dating from the 21st of December, 1864, and the Thirty-ninth Congress, at their first session, conferred on him the brevet rank of major-general in the regular army, dating from March 13, 1865.

When the Thirty-eighth Congress, at the suggestion of the lamented Lincoln, determined upon the organization of a "Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands," it was felt almost instinctively that General Howard was the man to be at the head of it, and no nomination made by the Secretary of War was more heartily approved than that by which he was named commissioner. Owing to the necessary duties connected with the closing up of his command of the right wing of General Sherman's army, General Howard was unable to take charge of his Bureau until May 12th, 1865. In its organization there were manifold difficulties to be overcome. The act was loosely drawn; many matters were left discretionary with the commissioner and his assistants, in which their duties should have been

tunes. I don't know any thing else." "Those will be just as good as any thing else," said the commanding general; "sing them." And so, as they ran down to the squadron, Howard made the air vocal with "Shining Shore," "Homeward Bound," and "Rock of Ages;" the staff officers joining in, and Sherman occasionally trying a stave or two—though it was evident, as he said, that his musical education *had* been neglected.

defined; and their authority was often insufficient to enforce measures which were necessary; still, during the first two or three years, the affairs of the Bureau were managed with a discretion, an integrity and a conscientious regard for the right in the conflicting interests of the freedman and his former master, which won for the commissioner and his subordinates the esteem and respect of the intelligent and loyal of all classes.

When President Johnson began to drift back to his old affinities with the rebels, and to sympathize with those whom he had at first so loudly proclaimed must be severely punished, the Freedmen's Bureau, and its patriotic and loyal commissioner, became objects of his utter aversion. He recommended that the Bureau should not be suffered to exist beyond the time specified in the first organic act, viz., two years; and when a new Freedmen's Bureau bill passed both houses of Congress, he vetoed it, attempting in a long argument to show the needlessness of any such Bureau of the Government. The bill was not passed over his veto, but later in the session a better bill, re-organizing it in some particulars, but retaining its substantial features and contemplating the retention of General Howard as commissioner, was passed by a strong vote, and when Mr. Johnson vetoed it, was passed again by the constitutional majority of two-thirds. Mr. Johnson then gave out that he had determined upon the removal of General Howard from the commissionership, but as the Tenure of Office act clearly prohibited this, he was compelled to allow him to remain, but did all that he could to hinder him from accomplishing what he desired. He pardoned in every case in which application was made, and sometimes even without application, the most violent rebels, especially if their lands had been confiscated and were inuring to the benefit of the Freedmen's Bureau, and he invariably ruled that his pardon entitled them to the restoration of all their lands unless

these had been sold for the non-payment of the direct revenue tax. This action of the President in many instances seriously crippled the usefulness of the Freedmen's Bureau, taking from it a source of legitimate revenue, and often requiring the relinquishment of lands occupied by colonies of freedmen, or for schools or churches for their intellectual or religious instruction; but, during this period of trial, General Howard maintained a discreet and dignified course.

There is no reason to believe that he was actuated at any time by any other motive than a desire to do what he believed to be right and just to both parties with whom he had to deal—the Freedmen and the original owners of the lands and houses, who had legally forfeited them by their participation in the Rebellion. But the condition of affairs was complicated in several ways. The various missionary and benevolent organizations (nearly or quite half a score of them) had their schools and in some cases their churches among the freedmen, and they were all anxious to secure what they deemed their fair proportion of these abandoned lands and buildings for their purposes; and within reasonable limits it was right and proper that they should be thus aided, since the grants would not go to the personal emolument of the officers of the societies, but to the support of the Freedmen's schools and worship. General Howard, with undoubted good intentions, was too easily influenced, and did not administer the trust with perfect fairness, and as a result, one society, with which he was religiously affiliated, now holds these abandoned lands and buildings by gift from him as commissioner, to the value of between two and three million dollars (some state the amount even higher), while other societies equally deserving had but a mere trifle granted them.

As was to be expected from a military officer of high rank, General Howard selected his assistant commissioners from his

comrades in the army, and undoubtedly endeavored to make a judicious selection of these for the work, but in too many instances, they proved cruel oppressors of the Freedmen, and took advantage of their position to enrich themselves at the expense of those whom they were sent to protect. There were, doubtless, very many who administered their difficult task with perfect honesty and justice, but the number who did not, was so large that the title of Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau became almost a term of reproach. General Howard from an *esprit du corps*, which was in one view creditable to him, was very unwilling to believe any evil report concerning his old comrades, and sometimes kept them in place when he should have removed and punished them. In 1869 and 1870, the Bureau had from these causes fallen into such a condition that it was felt that its longer existence would be undesirable, and an investigation into its affairs was ordered, which resulted in the exoneration of the commissioner from serious blame, though this result came about rather from the partial and imperfect character of the investigation, than from his entire innocence of all wrong. Among other good measures inaugurated by him during his administration of the Freedmen's Bureau, was the founding of Howard University, an institution for the higher education of men of color, of which he is the nominal president. He has been accused of transcending his powers in what he has done for this institution, but the charge has probably no sufficient foundation. The Bureau of Freedmen and Abandoned Lands is now virtually abolished, and General Howard has within a few months past been assigned to a new class of duties, the pacification of the wild and predatory tribes of the Southwest. In this work he will very probably prove more skilful than in the management of the Freedmen's Bureau, and win to himself deserved honor. The instances in our own, or in English history, where

men of strictly military education who have risen to high command in the army, have proved good civil administrators, have been so few that it is greatly to be desired for their own sakes, as well as as for the nation's sake, that the experiment may never again be tried.

General Howard in the army was one of our ablest officers, a Chevalier Bayard, *sans peur et sans reproche;* as an administrative officer, he has, to say the least, won no laurels. In 1865, Colby University (Waterville, Maine) and Shurtleff College, Alton, Illinois, conferred upon him the degree of LL.D.; and Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, Pa., did the same in 1866.

SALMON PORTLAND CHASE.

THIS distinguished statesman, jurist and financier—whose somewhat peculiar baptismal names were conferred upon him in memory of a deceased uncle Salmon, a resident of the town of Portland, Maine—was born at Cornish, New Hampshire, on the 13th of January, 1808. He traces his descent from Aquila Chase, a native of Cornwall, England, who was born in 1618, and, while quite young, came to America and settled at Newburyport, Massachusetts. Dudley Chase, the grandfather of Secretary Chase, and fourth in descent from Aquila, procured a grant of land on the Connecticut river, north of Charleston, (or, as it was then called, Fort No. 4,) upon which he settled, naming the township Cornish, in honor of the original home of his English ancestry. His children became notable persons in that region; one of them, Philander, being the Episcopal Bishop of Ohio, and the founder of Kenyon College; and another, D. P. Chase, became Chief Justice of Vermont. Another brother, Ithamar Chase, the father of the subject of this sketch, was a fine specimen of the old-fashioned New Englander, of imposing stature, great natural dignity, and an affability of manner which rendered him, in the best sense of the word, a gentleman. Sagacious, honest, energetic, and—Yankee-like—turning his hand to whatever business chance offered, he succeeded, as farmer, merchant, surveyor and manufacturer, in accumulating

a handsome property. He secured, also, the confidence and good-will of his fellow-citizens, whom he long served in the capacity of a justice of the peace, and whom, for many years, he acceptably represented in the Executive Council of New Hampshire. The close of the "war of 1812" brought disaster to his fortunes, and necessitated, in 1815, his removal to Keene, New Hampshire, where, two years later, he suddenly died, leaving his family with little else than the heritage of an honorable name and a well-spent life. His wife, however, who was of Scotch descent, and possessed much of the energy and thrift characteristic of that race, had inherited from her parents a little property, which still remained intact after the wreck of her husband's fortunes. By a careful husbanding of her resources, therefore, she was enabled to keep her children in comparative comfort, and to give a mother's tender thought and direction to their earlier studies. Young Chase, at the schools of Keene, and afterwards at a boarding school, kept by one of his father's old friends, at Windsor, Vermont, had mastered the elementary parts of knowledge, had got through the Latin Grammar, read a little in Virgil's Bucolics, and had commenced Greek and Euclid, when, in the spring of 1820, his mother received from her brother-in-law, the Bishop of Ohio, an offer to take charge of and educate the lad. The proposition was joyfully accepted, and, before long, Salmon started on his long journey westward, in company with his elder brother Alexander, who had just graduated from college, and was going (in company with Henry R. Schoolcraft, since distinguished as a traveller, ethnologist and writer) to join General Cass's expedition to the Upper Mississippi.

At Cleveland the young traveller parted from his brother and friend, and spent nearly a month with a friend of his uncle, while waiting for an opportunity to reach that relative, who

resided at Worthington, in the interior of the State. While thus delayed, the boy was by no means idle, but employed himself much of the time in ferrying travellers across the Cuyahoga, upon the eastern bank of which stream the town stood, thereby adding somewhat to his slender funds, and gaining a lesson of industrious self-reliance which was of much use to him in the future. At length, however, an opportunity offered for Salmon's proposed journey. He was placed in charge of two theological students, *en route* for Worthington, on horseback, and with them —travelling "ride and tie," as was frequently done in the time of the early settlement of the West—he made the long trip through the woods, fording streams, and meeting with many adventures which were full of interest and novelty. Arriving at Worthington, he was received into the family of his uncle, the bishop, a most excellent man, but a rigid disciplinarian, where he fulfilled the menial office of "chore boy" during the intervals of study. In mathematics and the languages he made excellent progress, despite the disadvantages under which he labored, of being so much and arduously occupied with farm duties. In composition he was proficient, and in Greek he so far excelled as to be the Greek orator of the bishop's school at its annual exhibition in the summer of 1821. One of his intimate schoolmates says: "Never have I known a purer or more virtuous-minded lad than he was. He had an extreme aversion to any thing dishonorable or vicious. He was industrious and attentive to business. Laboring on the farm of his uncle, he missed many recitations, and had but limited chances for study, yet, having a natural fondness for books, he was surpassed by no one of his age in the school. He had little regard for his personal appearance, or, indeed, for any thing *external*. His mind appeared to be directed to what was *right*, regardless of the opinions of others." In the fall of 1822, Bishop Chase removed

to Cincinnati, having accepted the presidency of the college there; and here a somewhat easier life, in many respects, fell to Salmon's lot. He entered the freshman class of the college, and studying hard, attained the rank of sophomore, when his studies were interrupted by the removal, in August, 1823, of the bishop, who resigned the presidency, in order to visit England, with the purpose of obtaining the necessary funds for a Protestant Episcopal Seminary in the West, an effort which finally resulted in the establishment of Kenyon College. Salmon returned to his home in New Hampshire, travelling a large portion of the way on foot; and, after a short period of school-teaching, and a few months of close and rapid preparation at the academy in Royalton, Vermont, entered the junior class of Dartmouth College. During his collegiate course, an incident occurred strongly indicative of that innate love of right which has ever been so marked a feature of Mr. Chase's character. An intimate friend and classmate having been arbitrarily accused, and, despite his asseverations of his innocence, condemned to rustication, by the faculty, for a trivial offence committed by other parties, Salmon waited upon the president, protested against the decision of the faculty as unjust, and finding it irrevocable, declared his intention to leave the college with his friend—and *did* leave. The faculty sent a messenger after them, who overtook them on the road, with a *revocation* of their sentence; but the inexorable young men did not return until they had spent a pleasant week of visiting among their friends and relatives; and their re-entry into Hanover was a triumph. As one of the foremost third of the senior class, young Chase was admitted into the Phi Beta Kappa Society, and at his graduation, in 1826, he ranked eighth, delivering an oration on "Literary Curiosity. Going directly to Washington, D. C., he announced, in the columns of the "National Intelligencer," of

December 23d, 1826, his intention to open a select classical school in that city on the first Monday of the ensuing year; but for a time fortune seemed to look most discouragingly upon him. Patience and courage, however, had their perfect work; and, finally, he most unexpectedly received the offer of the male department of a well-established classical school, the proprietors of which had determined to give their whole time and attention to the female department. In this school (in a little, one-story frame building on G street,) he commenced teaching, receiving the patronage of many eminent men, among whom were Henry Clay, William Wirt, and Samuel L. Southard, who entrusted their sons to his care. While thus arduously engaged, he occupied all his leisure time in studying law under William Wirt, then Attorney-General of the United States; and upon attaining his majority, in 1829, closed his school, and was admitted to the bar of the District of Columbia in February, 1830.

On the 4th, of March, 1830, he set out for Cincinnati, where he commenced the practice of his profession, with an energy and perseverance which could not fail to secure ultimate success. He formed a partnership with Edward King, Esq., son of the celebrated Rufus King, which,however,was of short duration; and in 1833, he formed another connection with Mr. Caswell, a lawyer of established reputation, and, while striving to obtain cases, he diligently busied himself with the compilation of the statutes of Ohio, accompanied with copious annotations and prefaced with a historical sketch of the State, the whole forming three large octavo volumes. This valuable compendium—the fruit of a careful use of time which young professional men too often fail to improve—soon superseded all other editions of the statutes, and is now the accepted authority in the courts. While the reading and investigations necessary to the compilation of this work. added largely to his stores of legal knowledge, the admi-

rable manner in which it was prepared, gave its young author an immediate reputation among the profession, and secured him the notice and respect of the active business community by which he was surrounded. It was the stepping-stone to his fortune. Early in 1834, he was made the solicitor of the United States bank, in Cincinnati, to which was soon added a similar position connected with another of the city banks, and he was soon engaged in the full tide of a large and lucrative commercial practice.

In 1837 the partnership of Caswell and Chase was dissolved, and shortly after the latter formed a connection with Mr. Ellis. Mr. Chase now first came distinctly and prominently before the public, in connection with those higher interests with which his name is now so widely associated.

In July, 1836, when the office of the "Philanthropist" newspaper, published by James G. Birney, was attacked and despoiled by an anti-slavery mob, Birney's life was saved by the courage of Salmon P. Chase, who, from that time, was foremost among those who breasted the tide of pro-slavery aggressions.

In 1837, as the counsel of a colored fugitive slave woman, claimed under the law of 1793, he made an elaborate argument denying the right of Congress to delegate to State magistrates, powers in such fugitive slave cases—a position since sustained by the Supreme Court of the United States, and maintained that the law of 1793 was void, because unwarranted by the Constitution.

In passing from the court room after making this brave, but ineffectual defence in this case, he overheard the remark of a prudent citizen, "*There is a promising young man who has just ruined himself.*" Time has proved how erroneous this judgment was, yet it was then the popular verdict. During the same year, Mr. Chase defended James G. Birney, who was tried before the

Supreme Court of Ohio, for harboring a negro slave—forcibly arguing that slavery was a local institution, dependent for its existence upon State legislation; and that the slave, having been brought into Ohio, by her master, was *de facto et de jure*, free. This was followed, in 1838, by a severe review from his pen, in the newspapers, of a recent report made by the Judiciary committee of the State Senate, in which they had advocated the refusal of trial by jury, to slaves. He also acted as counsel for Mr. Birney, in his trial for haboring the slave Matilda; and, in 1842, defended one Van Zandt, in the United States Circuit Court, in a similar trial, in which the principle as stated by the opposing counsel, "Once a slave always a slave," was met by Mr. Chase with its nobler antithesis "*Once free,* ALWAYS FREE;" and he followed it with a warning and eloquent denunciation of the atrocious claims of slavery. In these cases, Mr. Chase added materially to his previous honorable reputation, and took rank, thenceforward, with the oldest and ablest practitioners of Ohio. Up to this time, he had taken but little part or interest in politics, nor had he settled down into the trammels of any particular party—voting sometimes with the Democrats, but more generally with the Whigs, because the latter seemed most favorable to the anti-slavery doctrines to which he had given his conscientious adherence. He supported Harrison for the Presidency, in 1840; but, becoming convinced from the tone of his inaugural address and the subsequent course of the Tyler administration that the anti-slavery cause had little or nothing to hope for from the Whig party, and that the cause could only attain its legitimate aims, which he considered of paramount importance, through the instrumentality of a distinct party organization, he united with others, in 1841, in calling a State convention of the opponents of slavery and slavery-extension. The convention met in December, organized "the

Liberty party" of Ohio, nominated a candidate for governor, and issued an address (from Mr Chase's pen) defining its principles and purposes, which was one of the earliest expositions of the anti-slavery movement. In the "National Liberty convention," held at Buffalo, New York, in 1843, Mr. Chase was a prominent participant, and as a member of the committee on resolutions, so vigorously opposed a resolution which proposed "to regard and treat the third clause of the Constitution, whenever applied to the case of a fugitive slave, as utterly null and void, and consequently as forming no part of the Constitution of the United States, whenever we are called upon or sworn to support it,"—that it was not adopted by the committee, although it was afterwards moved and adopted in the convention. Years afterward, when Senator Butler, of South Carolina, charged Mr. Chase with having been the author and advocate of this resolution, and severely denounced the doctrine of mental reservation which it impliedly sanctioned, the latter replied, "I never proposed the resolution; I never would propose a vote for such a resolution. I hold no doctrine of mental reservation; every man, in my judgment, should speak just as he thinks, keeping nothing back, here or elsewhere." During the same year Mr. Chase was selected to prepare an address on behalf of the friends of Liberty, of Ireland and of Repeal, in Cincinnati, in reply to the letter from Daniel O'Connell, in behalf of the Loyal National Repeal Association of Ireland. This address—which reviewed the relations of the Federal Government to slavery at the period of its organization, set forth its original anti-slavery policy, and the subsequent growth of the political power of slavery, indicated the action of the Liberal party, and repelled the aspersions cast by a Repeal Association in Cincinnati, upon anti-slavery men—was a document worthy of Mr. Chase's talents. With Mr. Chase, also, originated the

Southern and Western Liberty Convention, held at Cincinnati, in June, 1845, and designed, in the words of its founder, to embrace "all who, believing that whatever is worth preserving in Republicanism can be maintained only by uncompromising war against the usurpations of the slave power, are therefore, resolved to use all constitutional and honorable means to effect the extinction of slavery in their respective States, and its reduction to its constitutional limits in the United States." He also drew up the address of the Convention, embracing a history of the Whig and Democratic parties in their relations to the slavery question, and urging the political necessity of forming a party pledged to the overthrow of the institution.

Mr. Chase, who had now become a widely distinguished champion of anti-slavery, was associated with William H. Seward in the defence of John Van Zandt, who was arraigned before the United States Supreme Court, for aiding in the escape of certain slaves; and subsequently he was retained for the defence in the case of Dieskell *vs.* Parish, before the United States Circuit Court, at Columbus, Ohio. In both of these cases he argued, in a most elaborate manner, that, "under the ordinance of 1787, no fugitives from service could be reclaimed from Ohio, unless there had been an escape from one of the original States; that it was the clear understanding of the framers of the Constitution, and of the people who adopted it, that slavery was to be left exclusively to the disposal of the several States, without sanction or support from the National Government; and that the clause of the Constitution relative to persons held to service was one of compact between the States, and conferred no power of legislation on Congress, having been transferred from the ordinance of 1787, in which it conferred no power on the Confederation and was never understood to confer any." In 1847, Mr. Chase attended a second "National

Liberty Convention;" where, in the hope that the agitation of the Wilmot Proviso would result in a more decided movement against slavery, he opposed the making of any national nominations at that time. He anticipated, also, the Whig and Democratic Conventions of 1848, by calling a Free-Territory Convention, which resulted in the Buffalo Convention, in August of that year, and the nomination of Mr. Van Buren for the presidency.

On the 22d of February, 1849, Mr. Chase was elected to the United States Senate, by the entire vote of the Democrats, and a large number of the free-soil members of the Ohio Legislature. Supporting the State policy and the nominees of the Democracy of the State, he still declared that he would desert it if it deserted the anti-slavery position which it then held. On the 26th and 27th of March, 1849, he delivered a cogent, eloquent and timely speech against the compromise resolutions; following it up during the session, with others on the specialities embraced within these resolution, and moved three amendments—one, against the introduction of slavery, in the Territories to which Mr. Clay's bill applied; another, to the Fugitive Slave Bill, to secure trial by jury to alleged slaves; and the third, to an amendment made by Senator Davis, relative to the reclamation of fugitives escaping from one State into another—all of which, however, were lost.

The nomination of Franklin Pierce for the presidency, and the approval of the compromise of 1850, by the Democratic Convention at Baltimore, in 1852, was the signal for Mr. Chase's withdrawal from the Ohio Democracy. He immediately took the initiative in the formation of an Independent Democratic party, which he continued to support, until the Nebraska-Kansas bill began to be agitated. To this bill he was a strenuous and prominent opponent, offering three important amendments,

which were severally rejected, and closing his opposition by an earnest protest against it on its final passage. During his Senatorial career, economy in the National Finances; a Pacific Railroad by the shortest and best route; the Homestead Bill; Cheap Postage, and the provision by the National Treasury for defraying the expense of procuring safe navigation of the Lakes as well as the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, all found in Mr. Chase an able and earnest champion. In 1855, he was elected Governor of Ohio, by the opponents of the Pierce administration, and his inaugural address recommended single districts for legislative representation, annual, instead of biennial sessions of the Legislature, and an extended educational system. At the next National Republican Convention, he declined the nomination for the Presidency, which was urged upon him by the delegations from his own, as well as other States. In the course of the same year, a deficiency was discovered in the State treasury, only a few days before the semi-annual interest on the State debt became due—but Governor Chase's energetic action compelled the resignation of the State Treasurer, who had concealed the deficiency, secured a thorough investigation, and effected such a judicious arrangement as protected the credit of the State, and averted what would otherwise have been a serious pecuniary loss.

At the close of his first gubernatorial term, the Republicans insisted upon his accepting a re-nomination, which was carried by acclamation, and he was re-elected after a spirited canvass. In his annual message for 1858, he made an elaborate exposition of the financial condition of Ohio, recommending, also, semi-annual taxation, a greater stringency in provisions for the security of the State treasury, and proper appropriations for the establishment of benevolent institutions, especially for the Reform School—all of which suggestions met with the approval of the

Legislature, and laws were passed in accordance therewith. In the beginning of 1860, he was again chosen to the United States Senate, from Ohio.

Upon the secession of South Carolina, in December, 1860, Mr. Chase urged upon General Scott, by letter, the necessity of taking active measures to secure the public property, assuring him that the country would fully endorse such action. But timid counsels prevailed. Again, in February, 1861, Mr. Chase represented Ohio at the Conference of the States, held at Washington, by invitation of Virginia, and there he stood boldly out as an uncompromising opponent of any purchase of peace by undue concessions to the South. Meanwhile, when threats were made that Mr. Lincoln should never be inaugurated, unless the South received the concessions it demanded from the North, Mr. Chase replied, "Inauguration first, adjustment afterwards," words which, caught up and used as a popular motto, had no small influence.

On the 4th of March, 1861, he took a seat in the Senate. Two days afterwards, however, he yielded to a very general and pressing demand, on the part of personal and political friends, (as well as some who, up to that time, had not been considered as either), and resigned his seat in the Senate to accept the Secretaryship of the Treasury, which had been tendered him by President Lincoln. Immediately after the organization of the Cabinet, and when the most important topic under discussion was, what should be the policy of the Government towards the seceded States, Mr. Chase's influence was strongly felt in the national councils. When hostilities commenced at Sumter, the Secretary urged upon General Scott the propriety of occupying Manassas, which, had it been done, would have compelled the evacuation of Harper's Ferry and the Shenandoah valley by the rebels, and would have materially altered the character of

the opening campaign of the war. To Mr. Chase's suggestion, also, was due the call, promulgated in May, 1861, for 65,000 volunteers, to take the place of the 75,000 first called for; and to him the President committed, with the consent of the Secretary of War, the preparation of the necessary orders—since known as Nos. 15 and 16—the one for the enlistment of volunteers and the other for regular regiments. The object which Mr. Chase had in view was the establishment of a regular system—which had not hitherto existed—in conformity with which all new enlistments should be made, and in this important work he was assisted by Colonel Thomas, Major McDowell and Captain Franklin. During the trying period, in the early part of the war, when great efforts were made to precipitate Missouri, Kentucky and Tennessee into rebellion, Mr. Lincoln committed to his Secretary of the Treasury the principal charge of whatever related to the conservation and protection of the interests of the Government in those States. He obtained for Rousseau, of Kentucky, his colonel's commission, and gave him his order for the raising of twenty companies. He also drew most of the orders under which Nelson acted, and furnished him with the means of defraying his expenses for the expedition into the interior of Kentucky, and the establishment of Camp Dick Robinson—movements which saved that State from secession. He was the honored confidant and adviser of General Cameron, while Secretary of War, especially in relation to western border-state matters, slavery, and the employment of colored troops; and it was at his suggestion that General Butler was directed by the Secretary of War to refrain from surrendering alleged fugitives from service to alleged masters, and to employ them under such organization and in such occupations as circumstances might suggest or require. It was, however, in the discharge of his legitimate duties, as Secretary of the Treasury, that Mr.

Chase achieved his greatest success. The treasury, at the time when he assumed its charge, was nearly bankrupt. He, therefore, immediately proceeded to negotiate a loan. On the 22d of March, 1861, he issued proposals for his first loan of $8,000,000 on six per cent. bonds, redeemable at the end of twenty years. The bids were opened April 2d, and amounted to $27,182,000, at rates varying from eighty-five for one hun d to par. All bids below ninety-four were promptly rejected by the Secretary, who determined to let the country know at the outset that bonds of the United States were not to be sacrificed in the market, and that the national credit was not so impaired as to be at the mercy of brokers and capitalists. The disappointed bidders winced at this decision, but its effect upon the country at large was certainly healthy.

Continuing to effect loans under existing laws, he borrowed, on the 11th of April, $4,901,000, on two years treasury notes, at a small premium; on 25th of May, $7,310,000, on twenty years bonds, at from eighty-five to ninety-eight, declining all bids below ninety five; and on two years treasury notes, $1,684,000 at par, all of which loans, considering the situation of the country, were remarkable successes. Congress, on its assembling in July, 1861, authorized a national loan, under which act, and the acts amending it, he took measures to secure the funds needed to carry on the war. The result of a full and frank conference with the representatives of the banks of Boston, Philadelphia and New York, at the latter city, was an agreement, on the part of the banks, to unite as associates in an advance to Government of $50,000,000; while he, on his part, agreed to appeal to the people for subscriptions to a national loan, on three years notes, bearing seven-thirty per cent. interest, and convertible into twenty years bonds bearing six per cent., the proceeds of which subscriptions should be paid over to the banks, in satisfaction

of their advances, so far as they would go; the deficiency, if any, to be made good in seven-thirty notes. By this and a subsequent loan, made on nearly the same terms, the Government obtained $100,000,000 at a rate of interest only one and three-tenths of one per cent. higher than the ordinary rate of six per cent., and that for three years only. The banks now declining to advance another $50,000,000 for the seven-thirty notes, through the efforts of the Secretary, a seven per cent. loan was negotiated on the 16th of November, but trouble resulted from the opposition of many of the banks to the further issue of United States notes as legal tender, in distinction to their own local issues, and the Secretary now applied the remedy to this state of affairs by uniting his whole influence to those who desired the United States notes made a legal tender, and by joining them, decided the success of that measure, which he had previously urged upon Congress.

It was, however, only by the most indomitable perseverance that he was enabled, after several defeats and long delay, to secure the passage of the National Banking Act, providing for a system of national banks, based upon government securities. This system, which embraces the best features of the New York Free Banking System, together with certain additions protective of the rights both of the bill-holder and depositor, has proved most successful, and, although at first vehemently opposed by some of the State and local banks, has now fairly triumphed over all opposition. In the negotiation of these loans, Mr. Chase secured the services of Mr. Jay Cooke, an eminent financier of Philadelphia, as general agent, who by his numerous agencies, and a wholesale and ingenious system of advertising, gave the widest possible publicity to the loan, and secured for it the full favor of the community throughout the United States. By January 1st, 1864, five hundred millions of

the loan (5–20 bonds) was taken up, and the subscriptions were in excess, by nearly fourteen millions, of the amount authorized. The full measure of the Secretary's comprehensive plans was insured by the enactment, in 1864, of tax laws, in accordance with his repeated suggestions since 1861, by which the revenue to the government was largely increased, and by the aid of which future secretaries of the treasury will be enabled to "weather" any financial pressure. This great work accomplished, he resigned his secretaryship, June 30, 1864.

The great importance and beneficial results of Mr. Chase's financial measures, adopted as they were in the heat and pressure of the most stupendous war of modern times, and initiated with a bankrupt treasury, and notice in advance from the great financial powers of Europe, that we "need not expect any assistance from them," render it desirable that they should be somewhat better understood than they have been, and we therefore gladly avail ourselves of the following explanations of them, recently put forth, it is understood, with his own sanction.

The objects which he had in view, were:

"I. To establish satisfactory relations between the public credit and the productive industry of the country—in other words, to obtain supplies. The suspension of the banks put an end to the first and most obvious resort, loans of gold, and made new methods indispensable. Then the secretary resorted to legal tender notes, made them a currency, and borrowed them as cash. The patriotism of the people came in aid of the labors of the treasury and the legislation of Congress, and the first great object was made secure.

"II. To provide against disastrous results on a return of peace. This could only be done by providing a national currency. There were about 1,500 State banks in existence which wanted to make their own paper the currency of the country This the secretary resisted, and confined his loans to greenbacks; but he did not drive out their currency, nor indeed did he think

it exactly honest to so deprive them of it, without giving any equivalent. He preferred to neutralize their opposition to a national currency and make them allies as far as possible, instead of enemies. In his endeavors to secure such results, he proposed the national banking system, and before he left the Department its success was assured.

"The national banks were certain to be useful in many ways, but the secretary's main object was the establishment of a national currency. This saved us from panic and revulsion at the end of the war, and is of inestimable value to men of labor and men of business—indeed, to every class.

"III. The third division of his labor was to provide a funding system. It was unavoidable during the rebellion that every means of credit should be used. He borrowed money every way he could at reasonable rates. The form that suited one lender did not suit another; and the army and navy needed every dollar that could be raised in any form. Hence temporary loans, certificates of deposit, certificates of indebtedness, 7.30 notes, compound interest notes, treasury notes payable after one and two years, etc.

"But it was necessary to have *funding loans*, into which all these *temporary loans* could be *ultimately* merged. To this end the secretary established the 5-20 loan and the 10-40 loan. His belief was that after the $514,000,000 of the 5-20 loan had been taken, the additional amounts needed could be obtained by the 10-40 loan and the temporary loans; but the secretary was ready to resort to the 5-20s in case of emergency. He did get $73,000,000 in the 10-40 loan, and his successors got about $120,000,000 more, at par.

"It is easy to see how Mr. Chase's funding system worked, by examining the last statement of the public debt. The condition is something like this: $1,200,000,000 5-20s; $200,000,000 10-40s; $200,000,000 81s payable now after fourteen years, which can then easily be put into 10-40s; other loans (all temporary), say $500,000,000, of which three fourths consist of 7.30s, convertible, and certain to be converted into 10-40s; and say $400,000,000 greenbacks, including fractional currency,

making the debt of $2,500,000,000. So, it may be seen, the whole debt except '81s is already funded, or sure to be funded in 5-20 six per cents, or 10-40 five per cents."

It has been well said of Mr. Chase's conduct in this hazardous and laborious position, that "the nerve he displayed, the breadth of intellect he manifested, the ardor of his patriotism, and the wonders wrought by his financial wisdom and skill throughout the first three years of the rebellion, are so recent and so well remembered, and live so freshly in the hearts of his grateful countrymen, as to render unnecessary any thing more than this simple reference. His enduring fame is built on his measures; his best eulogy is written in his acts. He vindicated the wisdom of the President's choice; he both justified and rewarded the confidence of the people." It is not strange, therefore, that President Lincoln, with strengthened confidence in Mr. Chase's patriotism, ability, and sound judgment, tendered to him, in 1864, the highest judicial seat of the nation, which had become vacant by the death of its venerable incumbent, Roger S. Taney. The nomination of Mr. Chase as Chief Justice, by the Executive, on the 6th of December, 1864, was promptly confirmed by the Senate, and on the 13th of the same month he took his seat upon the bench, "having previously," as the records state, 'on the same day taken the oath of allegiance, in the room of the judges, and the oath of office, in open court, at his place upon the bench, in the presence of a large number of ladies and gentlemen, who had assembled to witness a ceremony which, in this nation, had taken place but once in sixty-three years preceding." Shortly after his assumption of the duties of this high position, the Chief Justice made an extended tour throughout the recently conquered rebel States—passing down the Atlantic coast and up the Mississippi river—with the purpose of gaining a personal knowledge of the actual condition of the people. During this

trip, he embraced every opportunity of conversing unreservedly with all, both white and black, who chose to avail themselves of the knowledge of his presence, and the information thus obtained was placed at the public service in his correspondence with the President and others, while his suggestions of measures necessary and expedient to the proper accomplishment of peace and reconstruction, order and justice, were characterized by a comprehensiveness of view and a noble spirit of Christian patriotism eminently creditable to his head and heart.

Few public men of his years, in this country, possess minds better stored with varied treasures of knowledge, or bear the evidence of severer mental discipline than Mr. Chase. To an intellect at once comprehensive, discriminating and retentive, he adds the graces of learning and the power of logic; and whatever subject he treats, is handled with keen insight, breadth of view, thoroughness of reflection, and strength of reasoning. His whole career as a statesman and jurist, and all his public efforts, in popular addresses, newspaper writings, occasional lectures, and contributions to periodical literature, show the same breadth of premise, exactness of statement, logical sequence, completeness of consideration, and power of conclusion, from which we are justified in hoping and expecting much in his present exalted position, where his rulings and decisions have always been characterized by their adherence to the great fundamental principles of equity on which all human law is professedly based. His is no narrow mind to run only in the rut of precedents, and be constantly hampered by the chicanery of rigid constructionists. He goes naturally to the foundation principles, and while he has no superior, either in legal learning and acumen, or in wide and generous culture, upon the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States, he is less

likely perhaps than any of them to base an opinion on previous decisions either there or in the English courts.

In the trial of Andrew Johnson under the impeachment of the House of Representatives, Chief Justice Chase was, by the Constitution, the presiding officer of the High Court of Impeachment. His course there was marked by dignity and ability. The position was a difficult and trying one, and his powers (it being the first instance of such presidency since the adoption of the Constitution) were not clearly defined; but he acquitted himself admirably in it.

In person Mr. Chase presents the most imposing appearance of any man in public life in this country. He is over six feet in height, portly and well proportioned, with handsome features, and a grand, massive head. Few men possess so much real dignity and grace of manner. But with it all, he is utterly incapable of the arts of the demagogue, or of any effort to win popularity, by "bending the supple hinges of the knee, that thrift may follow fawning." He entered upon his office of Secretary of the Treasury with a property of about one hundred thousand dollars; he left it three years later, after managing the immense finances of the nation in war time, materially poorer than when he assumed office. No man who knew him could doubt, for an instant, his unflinching integrity and honesty.

The name of Chief Justice Chase has often been used in connection with the Presidency, and while an aspiration for that exalted position is not unworthy of one who could not but be conscious "that he had done the State some service," it would have been more worthy of his great and brilliant past career had he remembered that his present office is one of equal honor and of less severe test of character than the Presidency.

We would be glad to present Chief Justice Chase's character

to our readers as one without foible or blemish, so highly do we esteem the great work he accomplished for freedom for so many years; but we are afraid that he cannot be acquitted of the charge of coquetting for the Presidency. In 1868, at the Democratic National Convention, he, one of the founders of the Anti-Slavery and of the Republican parties, the firmest and most fearless advocate of the measures which made the Union party triumphant in the civil war, and which had been censured over and over again by the Democratic party as ruinous to the Government, was the avowed candidate of a large section of that party for the Presidency, and his daughter, Mrs. Senator Sprague, was through the whole session canvassing actively for his nomination. Defeated in that convention by Horatio Seymour, who secured the nomination but not an election, it was supposed by his old friends that he had given up all hope of reaching a nomination; and in the interval of a long illness, which it was feared had impaired seriously his intellectual and physical powers, but from which he happily recovered, other men and other issues had become so prominent that he was not even suggested as a candidate. But the old ambition was not yet dead, and he was so unwise as to write the following letter to a friend to be used at the Cincinnati Liberal Reform Convention in May, 1872.

WASHINGTON, D. C., April 29, 1872.

MY DEAR SIR:

My name, if we may judge from the newspapers, will not be much considered at Cincinnati, and I am quite content and none the less grateful to the friends who think it should be so, as you know I have not sought or desired the nomination. If it were judged the best means of uniting the greatest number of those opposed to the Administration on principle, it would doubtless be my duty to accept it. If any other name be preferred, I shall be entirely satisfied. What is essential with me is that what has been gained—freedom—be secured beyond peradven-

ture; that the currrency be placed on a sound basis; that a real reform be accomplished in taxation, internal and external, and in perfect reconciliation of sections and citizens. Your Parkersburg platform, as I remember it, embodies these views substantially, and I hope none contrary to it will be adopted.

Yours truly,

S. P. CHASE.

It was a painful commentary on this letter that at that convention he received on the first ballot two and a half votes, on the second, one, and on the subsequent ballots none. Yet despite this slight weakness, Chief Justice Chase is one of our statesmen of whom we have great cause to be proud. His views are broad and profound on all the great questions of statesmanship, and his manliness and strict integrity render him a man to be thoroughly trusted and honored. May he long continue to fill the high office he adorns by his learning and ability.

WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD.

WILLIAM HENRY SEWARD, the son of Dr. Samuel S. Seward, for seventeen years a county judge, and a man of more than ordinary business ability and practical philanthropy, was born at Florida, Orange county, New York, on the 16th of May, 1801. Manifesting from childhood an earnest love of knowledge and taste for study, he was sent, when nine years old, to Farmers' Hall Academy, at Goshen, in his native county. Rapidly advancing in his studies there, and at an academy afterwards established in his native town, he was fully prepared, at the age of fifteen, to enter college. Matriculating, as a sophomore, at Union College, in 1816, he manifested a peculiar aptitude for rhetoric, moral philosophy and the classics. In 1819, in his senior year, he spent some six months in teaching at the South, and, returning to college, graduated with high honors; being one of the three commencement orators chosen by the college society, to which he belonged. The subject he selected was, "The Integrity of the American Union." Entering, soon after his graduation, the office of John Anthon, of New York city, he commenced the study of law, continuing and completing his preparation with John Duer and Ogden Hoffman, of Goshen, New York, with the latter of whom he became associated in practice. In January, 1822, he was admitted to the bar, and removing to Auburn, New York, formed a

partnership with Judge John Miller, of that place, whose youngest daughter became his wife in 1824. As a lawyer, his originality of thought and action, as well as his great industry, soon brought him an extensive and lucrative practice. Politics also claimed much of his attention, and, as was natural, he followed in the political footsteps of his father, who was a prominent Jeffersonian Republican. In October, 1824, despite his youth, he was chosen to draw up the Address to the People of the Republican Convention of Cayuga county, which document was an exposure of the origin and designs of the Albany Regency. In 1827, he contributed largely, by his eloquent speeches, to the success of the popular movement in behalf of the Greeks, then struggling for their freedom. In 1828, he presided with distinguished ability over a very large convention of young men favorable to the election of John Quincy Adams to the presidency, held at Utica, New York, and the same year declined a proffered nomination to Congress. When the National Republican party was dissolved by Jackson's election as President, Mr. Seward fraternized with the Anti-Masonic organization, the only opposition then existing to the Albany Regency, and from that party accepted, in 1830, a nomination to the State Senate. He was elected by a majority of two thousand, in a district (the seventh) which had given a large majority the other way in the previous year. Scarcely thirty years old, he entered the Senate as the youngest member who had ever attained that honor, and found himself, politically, in a small minority, at a time when party lines were sharply defined. Yet he fearlessly entered the lists, throwing down the gauntlet to the Jackson power and the Albany Regency, taking part in all debates, advocating the claims of abolition of imprisonment for debt, the amelioration of prison discipline, opposition to corporate monopolies, the extension of the popular franchise, the common-school system, the

Erie railroad and internal improvements, etc. His maiden speech was on a militia bill, in which he proposed, substantially, the same system of volunteer uniform companies as that at present in use in New York State; and during the second session of his term he delivered a speech in advocacy of a national bank, which, with others of similar import, gave rise (by concentrating an opposition in the Senate) to what subsequently developed as the Whig party. In the summer of 1833, during the recess of the Senate, Mr. Seward made a hurried visit to Europe, adding largely to his reputation by the letters which he wrote home, and which were published in the Albany "Evening Journal." In September, 1834, he was nominated for governor by the Whig State Convention, against William L. Marcy, but was defeated, although running ahead of his ticket in every county. Resuming his practice, Mr. Seward, in 1836, settled in Chautauqua county, as the agent for the Holland Land Company; and, in 1838, was again nominated by the Whigs, and elected governor by ten thousand majority. In 1840, he was re-elected. During his administration occurred the celebrated anti-rent difficulties; the Erie canal was enlarged; the State lunatic asylum was founded; imprisonment for debt, and every vestige of slavery were eradicated from the statute-books; important reforms were effected in elections, in prison discipline, in bank laws, and in legal courts. One of the most important events of his administration was the controversy with the Governors of Virginia and Georgia, in which the latter claimed from him the rendition of certain colored sailors, charged with having abducted slaves from said States. Governor Seward refused compliance, and argued the case with a firmness and ability which attracted the attention of the whole country; and when his course was denounced by the Democrats, after their accession to power, and he was requested to transmit their resolutions to

the Governor of Virginia, he declined to do so—remaining inflexible, despite the retaliatory measures threatened by the State of Virginia against the commerce of New York. A similar instance of firmness and sagacity was manifested by him, in his refusal to surrender, to the British Government, Alexander McLeod, charged with burning the steamer Caroline, during the Canadian rebellion of 1837, a refusal in which he persisted, in spite of the British minister's threats of hostilities, the advice of President Tyler's administration, and the strong intercession of many of his own political friends. In January, 1843, Mr. Seward, declining another nomination, resumed the practice of law, devoting himself, for the ensuing six years, assiduously to business, attaining a large practice in the highest State courts, and—owing to a particular aptitude for mechanical science—having a considerable number of patent-cases, which brought him into association with the best legal talent of the country. He also gave freely, not only his professional services but his means, in behalf of certain friendless unfortunates, whose cases and trials form some of the most interesting records of criminal jurisprudence. Conspicuous among these was the case of the insane negro Freeman, the murderer of the Van Nest family, in Orange county, New York, a case which, in spite of derision, obloquy and reproach, Mr. Seward never forsook, until the death of his client, "caused by the disease of the brain, satisfied even the most prejudiced, that his course had been as wise as it confessedly was humane and generous." He also gratuitously defended, before the United States Supreme Court, in 1847, the case of John Van Zandt, charged with aiding fugitive slaves to escape from Kentucky; his argument in the case being pronounced "a masterly exposition of the inhumanity and unconstitutionality of the Fugitive Slave act."

In 1851, he defended, at Detroit, fifty men on trial for con-

spiracy, who could find but one lawyer in Michigan courageous enough to undertake their case. It was a four months' trial, involving the examination of four hundred witnesses. and he secured the acquittal of thirty-eight of the number. Besides all this professional labor, Mr. Seward did good service in various political campaigns; especially in 1844, in favor of a tariff; against the annexation of Texas, and the Mexican War; against disenfranchisement of foreign-born citizens, etc. In 1846, he was largely instrumental in securing the calling of the convention for the revision of the Constitution of the State of New York. In September, 1847, he delivered, at New York, an address on the life and character of Daniel O'Connell, which was one of his finest efforts; and in April, 1848, he pronounced, before the Legislature of New York, a touching and felicitous eulogy on John Quincy Adams. When General Taylor was nominated for the presidency, in 1848, Mr. Seward became one of the prominent public speakers, canvassing New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Massachusetts, making, as heretofore, the great principles of human freedom the central topics of his speeches, and was everywhere greeted with the hearty and unanimous applause of his audience. Shortly after Taylor's election, Mr. Seward was elected to the Senate of the Thirty-first Congress, and soon became recognized as the foremost advocate of the administration policy—enjoying the intimacy and confidence of the President until his untimely decease. During the first session of this Congress, Mr. Seward took a prominent and very influential part in the contest which resulted in the passage of the Compromise act, and it was in the discussion of these measures that he used the phrase "the Higher Law," which has achieved so great and wide-spread a significance. Three years before, he had said, in the Van Zandt case "Congress had no power to inhibit any duty commanded

by God on Mount Sinai, or by his Son on the Mount of Olives," and now (March 11th, 1860), speaking of the admission of California, he said, "We hold no arbitrary authority over any thing, whether acquired lawfully, or seized by usurpation. The Constitution regulates our stewardship; the Constitution devotes the domain to union, to justice, to defence, to welfare, and to liberty. But there is a Higher Law than the Constitution, which regulates our authority over the domain, and devotes it to the same noble purpose." In short, Senator Seward waged an "irrepressible conflict" against any compromise of the slavery question, a course of conduct which brought him not only into collision with the Democratic party, but also with Clay, Webster, Fillmore, and other prominent men of his own party. From this time party lines became more sharply drawn between the Pro-Slavery men and Abolitionists; and to the Southerner, "Bill Seward," as he was called, became an object of abuse, misrepresentation, and open contempt, in many cases, when they passed him on the street. But this effort to ostracise him was utterly futile. His rare abilities and elevated character made him proof against the scorn and derision of little minds; he held the even tenor of his way, and on all great national questions he took a part in the debate, and even his enemies could not but listen in admiration of his statesmanlike views. The subjects of Public Lands; indemnities of French Spoliations; Kossuth; the survey of the Arctic and Pacific Oceans; American Whale Fisheries; and American Steam Navigation; were handled by him, in public debate, with a grasp of intellect and a force of eloquence worthy of his high reputation. During the Thirty-second Congress, Mr. Seward advocated the Continental railroad, and opposed the removal of duties from railroad iron; and, in the summer of 1853, after the adjournment found time, besides engaging in several importan

legal cases, to deliver an oration at the dedication of a university at Columbus, Ohio, on "The Destiny of America," and another before the American Institute at New York, on "The True Basis of American Independence," both of which possess a value beyond the occasions which elicited them.

In the Thirty-third Congress, he introduced a bill for the construction of a Pacific railroad, another for establishing steam-mails between California, China, Japan, and the Sandwich Islands, besides measures for the modification of the Tariff, the Homestead Bill, Miss Dix's effort for the Relief of the Insane, etc. etc.—all of which matters, however, gave place to the all-absorbing discussion of Senator Douglas's Nebraska bill, which, it is needless to say, met with all the persistent and powerful opposition which Mr. Seward could bring against it. The measure, however, was finally passed. In addition to the elaborate speeches made on this topic, Mr. Seward pronounced chaste and discriminating eulogies on Henry Clay and Daniel Webster, and during the summer of this year (1856) delivered the annual oration before the literary societies of Yale College on "The Physical, Moral, and Intellectual Development of the American People," and at the commencement exercises, received the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws. In October following, he made his celebrated and elaborate argument in the United States Circuit Court in the "McCormick Reaper case." During the second session of the Thirty-third Congress, Mr. Seward, in addition to his continued advocacy of all the leading measures of public improvement, strenuously opposed Senator Toucey's bill protecting government officers in the execution of the Fugitive Slave act, and gave his affirmative vote to a substitute proposed during the debate, repealing the Fugitive Slave act of 1850.

In February, 1855, Mr. Seward was re-elected to the Senate,

for the term of six years, notwithstanding a most determined opposition from the "Know Nothing" or American party, and the Democratic party. His election, which was everywhere considered as a triumph of the advocates of freedom, assumed a national interest; and Mr. Seward was tendered public receptions at various places along his homeward route, after the extra session of Congress, all of which, however, he respectfully declined. During the State canvass in the fall of 1855, he delivered at Albany, Auburn, and Buffalo, speeches in which the political issues of the times were sketched with a master's hand—and, having enjoyed an immense circulation in newspaper and pamphlet form, were still further honored by being the subject of allusion in President Pierce's annual message. On the 22d of December, 1855, Mr. Seward delivered, at Plymouth, Massachusetts, an address commemorative of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, well worthy of the occasion, and his own high reputation as a statesman and scholar. During the protracted debates on the Kansas difficulties, in the thirty-fourth session of Congress, Mr. Seward bore a conspicuous part; his speeches being elaborate and exhaustive, and his labors indefatigable. The affairs of Kansas were also discussed by him, in two able speeches on the "Army bill," at the extra session in August. After the adjournment, he almost immediately plunged into the canvass of the coming Presidential election, in support of Fremont—two of his speeches, those delivered at Auburn and Detroit, displaying more than ordinary ability. Upon the re-assembling of Congress in December, he pronounced an eloquent and touching eulogium upon his old friend, Hon. John M. Clayton, and during the session he advocated the claims of Revolutionary officers; the prospect of government aid to the proposed Atlantic telegraph; a bill for a telegraph line to California and the Pacific coast; the overland mail route, and also the

railroad to the Pacific; a revision of the tariff, by which the popular interests should be protected, etc. He also reviewed the Dred Scott decision, and proposed such a re-organization of the United States courts, as should give all sections of the Union a more equable representation, and meet, more fully, the wants of the growing West. During the Thirty-fifth Congress, Mr. Seward spoke on a larger variety of subjects than usual; opposing manfully the admission of Kansas into the Union under the "Lecompton Constitution," and from first to last, advocating the principle that the people of Kansas should be left perfectly free to decide upon their own organic law; advocating the increase of the army in Utah for the suppression of rebellion there; insisting upon reparation being demanded from the British Government for aggressions committed by their cruisers upon American vessels in the Mexican Gulf; favoring the admission of Minnesota and Oregon into the Union, as States; and various interesting speeches, more or less elaborate, upon the Pacific Railroad, Treasury Notes, the Walker "filibustering" expedition, rivers and harbors, and eulogiums upon Senators Rusk of Texas, Bell of New Hampshire, and J. Pinckney Henderson of Texas, of which the first named has been considered as one of the finest specimens of mortuary eloquence ever delivered before that body. After the adjournment of Congress, Mr. Seward made an argument on the "Albany Bridge case," which added largely to his reputation, by the remarkable knowledge which it displayed of the subject of navigation and the constitutional questions involved. In the autumn campaigns of 1858, he displayed his usual ardor and ability in the canvass for State officers and members of Congress, his speeches causing profound sensations, especially that at Rochester, New York, in which, speaking of the collision between the free and slave systems of labor, he said, "Shall I

tell you what this collision means? They who think that it is accidental, unnecessary, the work of interested or fanatical agitators, and therefore ephemeral, mistake the case altogether. It is *an irrepressible conflict* between opposing and enduring forces, and it means that the United States must and will, sooner or later, become either entirely a slaveholding nation, or entirely a free-labor nation." These significant words were severely denounced by the Democrats as revolutionary and dangerous, but they became the rallying cry of the hosts of Freedom, and they have been more than vindicated by subsequent events of our national history. Mr. Seward's services during the last session of the Thirty-fifth Congress, were rendered in behalf of those important and beneficent measures of which he was always a consistent and persistent friend, viz., the Homestead bill, the Pacific railroad, etc. In 1859, he made a second trip to Europe, to restore his health, impaired by incessant labor, and returning, devoted himself vigorously, in 1860, to the canvass of the Western States, in behalf of Abraham Lincoln. He had, indeed, himself been the prominent candidate for the presidency, in the National Republican Convention of that year, his nomination being regarded as certain by his friends. On the second ballot he received one hundred and eighty-four and one half votes, but on the third was defeated by Mr. Lincoln. During the same year he entertained at his table the Prince of Wales and his suite, who were then making a tour of the United States—on which occasion he casually intimated to his guests, in a jocular but significant remark—which was afterwards remembered when he was Secretary of State, during the civil war, that it would be a dangerous matter for England to meddle with the United States in any other way, than that of friendly rivalry. Mr. Seward had already foretold the "irrepressible conflict," and when it

loomed up in still more threatening guise, and before the ex piration of his second senatorial term in March, 1861, he boldly asserted his position thus—"I avow my adherence to the Union with my friends, with my party, with my State, or without either, as they may determine; in every event of peace or of war, with every consequence of honor or dishonor, of life or death."

Immediately upon Mr. Lincoln's election to the presidency, he tendered to Mr. Seward the chief cabinet office, that of Secretary of State. It was accepted by the latter, and the difficult and perplexing duties which he thus assumed, were discharged with signal ability and success. His judicious administration of the office during the early part of Mr. Lincoln's first term, tended more than any other cause, to ward off intervention on the part of foreign powers, in the momentous struggle then going on between the Government and the rebellious States—and he challenged the respect and admiration of those powers themselves, as well as of his own fellow-countrymen, by the fairness, ability, fulness, and broad statesmanship, with which he discussed and settled the many perplexing and unprecedented questions which came under the notice of the State Department. Conspicuous among these, was the case of the demand by Great Britain for the surrender of Messrs. Mason and Slidell, rebel envoys who were forcibly taken by Captain Wilkes of the United States navy, from a British ship on which they were passengers, in the fall of 1861. Perhaps, at no time since the "War of 1812," has danger of war between England and America been so imminent, as then. It was averted, however, by the judicious diplomacy of the secretary, who, while avoiding a war by surrendering the rebel commissioners to Great Britain, on the ground, that, although they and their dispatches were in reality contraband of war, yet their captor had committed an

irregularity in not bringing the ship, and all on board, into port for adjudication—at the same time made the surrender a means of enforcing from that country, the never-before conceded right of the freedom of neutral flags on the high seas.

It is well known that, during Mr. Lincoln's administration, Mr. Seward was, in most matters, the ruling spirit, and in general it must be admitted that he used his power well. There was dissatisfaction, not wholly causeless, at the freedom with which he used the power of arbitrary arrest; some complaint of the capricious, and at times not wholly respectful, manner in which he treated the representatives of the weaker foreign powers; some displeasure at his apparently open defiance of Congress in relation to the Mexican question, in offering to recognize Maximilian, after Congress had voted by a large majority to give moral support only to the Juarez government. These and other measures of his, so greatly dissatisfied the Republicans, that at their National Convention in Baltimore, in 1864, they passed a resolution requesting the President to reconstruct his cabinet. Mr. Seward tendered his resignation, as did some of the other cabinet officers, but Mr. Lincoln, who knew well Mr. Seward's value in the cabinet, in spite of his faults and errors, refused to accept his resignation, and retained him in his place.

Mr. Seward is by nature an optimist, always looking on the favorable side of a subject, and indulging, perhaps too much for the highest order of statesmanship, in glowing reveries and predictions of the wonderful growth, progress, and prosperity of our country in the immediate future. During the war, he excited some amusement by his oft repeated prophecies that it would close in sixty or ninety days. The second of these predictions, in his correspondence on the Mason and Slidell

affair, furnished food for mirth among our enemies in the British Parliament for years.

After Mr. Lincoln's second inauguration, he re-appointed Mr. Seward for his second term, and in the closing events of the war in the east, the secretary rendered him great service.

Early in April, 1865, while Mr. Seward was riding in his carriage, the horses became frightened and ran, and in attempting to jump out, he was thrown to the ground, and his right arm was broken, and both sides of the lower jaw fractured. He was severely prostrated by this accident, and, for a time, serious fears were felt for his recovery. While thus confined to his bed, he narrowly escaped falling a victim to the fiendish plan of the conspirators who assassinated President Lincoln. Almost simultaneously with the attack upon Mr. Lincoln, an assassin forced his way into Mr. Seward's chamber, and striking down Mr. Frederick Seward, and overcoming the opposition of a male nurse, who was in attendance, reached the secretary's bedside and inflicted upon him three stabs in the face, which, however, failed of their deadly intent, although they greatly protracted his recovery. The assassin fled, but was subsequently arrested, convicted, and executed.

There have been those, even among the strongest friends of Mr. Seward in the past, who have been so uncharitable as to regret, for his sake, that the assassin failed of the complete accomplishment of his purpose at that time; for, they have argued, his career up to that time had been honorable to himself and a glory to the nation, and he would have died in the odor of sanctity, and with a martyr's halo around his brow, and have been remembered in all the future as the great statesman, who loved his country intensely, and laid down his life for her sake.

Without avowing any sympathy with this view, candor com-

pels us to say, that Mr. Seward's course since his recovery from those wounds of the assassin, was not wholly worthy of his previous illustrious career. Forgetful, apparently, of his past intense loyalty and devotion to freedom, he sustained Mr. Johnson in every attempted usurpation of power; assumed a supercilious tone in addressing the people, while yet their servant, was vacillating and self-contradictory in his intercourse with foreign powers, and attempted to distract the attention of Congress from the usurpations and crimes of his chief, by the purchase of extensive territories away from our previous geographical limits, and of which we stood in no need. These purchases were made without any consultations with Congress, and solely upon his own judgment; the prices he offered for them were exorbitant, and they were understood to be but the stepping stones to further and still more extensive negotiations. His purchase from Russia of the territory of Alaska, for seven and a half millions of dollars in gold, was regarded by most of our people as unwise, but the negotiations had already proceeded so far, that it was consummated; but when he proceeded to buy from Denmark, at eight or ten times their value, the islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz, the home of earthquakes and hurricanes; entered upon negotiations with San Domingo for the bay and harbor of Samana, and turned longing eyes upon the island of Cuba, all felt that his greed for land was growing too great to be longer tolerated, and his negotiations were brought to an ignoble conclusion. His ulterior object of distracting attention from Mr. Johnson's usurpations failed as signally, and he was involved, even more fully than any of his colleagues, in the disgrace of the President.

We are glad to say that with his retirement from the cabinet in March, 1869, his eyes seemed to be opened to his departure from the principles to which his life had been for so many years

devoted. With the glamour, which in official position had deceived him, removed from his vision, and the stern realities of a future life in which he must give an account of his stewardship, confronting him, in feeble health and with a partially paralysed body, this man prematurely old, from the hot fevers of partisan strife and political action, had leisure to review his career, and to see clearly the errors he had committed. When he had partially recovered from his illness, his active and restless spirit, impatient of confinement, led him, feeble as he still was, to undertake a journey round the world. Traversing first our neighbor republic of Mexico, where, notwithstanding his former inclination to recognize Maximilian's Empire, he was received with great cordiality and many honors, he subsequently traversed our Pacific States, and thence by steamer visited Japan, China, India, Palestine and Egypt, and the principal states of Europe. Everywhere he was received with high honor, and his ability and statesmanship fully recognized. In the autumn of 1871, he returned to his luxurious home at Auburn, and has since been engaged in the preparation for speedy publication of a narrative of his journeyings.

He will, not in all probability, take any part hereafter in public or political life, and perhaps has no desire to do so; but there is a lesson for all statesmen to learn from his career. While engaged in the defence of a great principle, the advocacy of a great right, or the attack on a great wrong, they can afford to sacrifice present popularity for the abiding and deliberate judgment of the future; they can be sure that they will not long remain misunderstood; but if these same statesmen when known, honored, and loved, depart from the principles they have so long and fearlessly advocated, if tempted by the glittering gauds of office, fame and political power, they forget to practise those great doctrines which it has been their glory to sustain, no

length of public service, no deeds of past patriotism, no lofty aspirations in the past, will save them from that deep and settled distrust, on the part of the masses, which will eventually bury them beneath the waters of oblivion.

Mr. Seward, though a man of rare gifts and extraordinary talents, is not prepossessing in personal appearance; small of stature, slender and pale, careless in dress and manner, and with an habitually sad expression of countenance, he wins confidence but slowly; yet he has the art to attach his friends to him "as with hooks of steel."

Let us hope that, when he shall sleep under the clods of the valley, there may be in the hearts of the people a kindly remembrance of his great services to his country during forty years and more of his public career, which shall partially, if it cannot wholly, conceal the errors of his later life.

SCHUYLER COLFAX,

VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN the life history of this eminent statesman, so widely known and so universally beloved, we have another of those instances of which we have had so many in this volume, of a man rising by the power of genius and industry from humble life, and filling exalted stations with a grace, ease, and dignity, which could not be surpassed had he been "to the manor born."

SCHUYLER COLFAX comes from some of our best revolutionary stock. His grandfather, Captain Colfax, was the commandant of General Washington's body-guard; his grandmother was a near kinswoman of that noble patriot of the Revolution, Major-General Philip Schuyler. He was born in New York city, March 23d, 1823, his father having died in early manhood, a short time before his birth. When he was ten years old, his mother married again, becoming the "Mrs. Matthews," whom all recent habitues of Washington have seen presiding at her son's receptions. With this event the boy's school life closed, but the scanty term seems to have been well improved, for one of his early schoolmates tells us "Schuyler always stood at the head of his class." The next three years were spent in his stepfather's store. In 1836, his stepfather having decided to emi-

grate to the west, Schuyler accompanied his parents to the valley of the St. Joseph river, and they settled in New Carlisle, St. Joseph county, Indiana. The region was then a wilderness, but it is now densely populated, and its thrift, fertility, enterprise and beauty have made it the garden of the State. The five years which followed, were, we believe, spent as clerk in a country store. His disposition to study was inbred, and every leisure moment was improved. A friend and companion of his boyhood, in New York, now an active business man and philanthropist, tells us that, in those days, he and Schuyler Colfax kept up an active correspondence, and that Schuyler's letters always spoke of the studies he was prosecuting by himself in the wilderness, and were full of knotty questions, which both tried their best to solve.

In 1841, his stepfather, Mr. Matthews, was elected county auditor, and removed to South Bend. Schuyler became his deputy, and made such studious use of his leisure, that when but little more than eighteen, he became undisputed authority on precedents, usage, and State laws affecting the auditor's duties. He was also very busily engaged in the study of law at this time. A debating society, that inevitable necessity of American village life, was organized at South Bend in 1843, and, on some one's suggestion, it was transformed into a moot State Legislature, of which Hon. J. D. Defrees, since government printer, was speaker, and young Colfax an active member. The rules of parliamentary debate, and the decisions of points of order, were followed with amusing punctiliousness in this body, and Colfax, who had improved his previous familiarity with these matters, by two years' service as Senate reporter for the State Journal, soon became the acknowledged authority on all parliamentary questions, and was thus unconsciously qualifying himself for that post he has since so ably filled.

In 1845, he started a weekly journal at South Bend, the county seat, with the title of the *St. Joseph Valley Register*, becoming its sole proprietor and editor. In this connection it is doubtless proper to correct a mistake into which the public has fallen relative to Mr. Colfax's connection with the printing business. Mr. Lanman, in his Dictionary of Congress, says:—"He was bred a printer." He never was apprenticed to the printing business, and knew nothing of the practical part of the "art preservative of all arts," until after he had commenced the publication of the *Register*. With his ready tact and quick perception, however, and great anxiety to economise, for his means were yet very limited, he soon mastered the art sufficiently to "help out of the drag;" but he never attained to any great proficiency in the business; his editorial labors, the business of the office, and other duties, soon claiming his entire attention.

The *Register* prospered, and soon became a source of profit to its proprietor. It was ably edited, and was a model of courtesy and dignity. Every paragraph, however small, seemed to have passed under the supervision, and to reflect the mind and elevated thoughts of its editor.

How he toiled at this time, and what was the opinion of the people of South Bend of the young editor, are very pleasantly related by Mr. Samuel Wilkeson, in a speech at a press dinner, in Washington, in 1865, at which Mr. Colfax was an honored guest.

"Eighteen years ago, at one o'clock of a winter moon-lighted morning, while the horses of the stage-coach in which I was plowing the thick mud of Indiana, were being changed at the tavern in South Bend, as I walked the footway of the principal street to shake off a great weariness, I saw a light through a window. A sign, '*The Register*,' was legible above it, and I saw through the window a man in his shirt sleeves walking quickly

about like one that worked. I paused, and looked, and imagined about the man, and about his work, and about the lateness of the hour to which it was protracted; and I wondered if he was in debt, and was struggling to get out, and if his wife was expecting him, and had lighted a new candle for his coming, and if he was very tired. A coming step interrupted this idle dreaming. When the walker reached my side, I joined him, and as we went on I asked him questions, and naturally they were about the workman in the shirt sleeves. 'What sort of a man is he?' 'He is very good to the poor; he works hard; he is sociable with all people; he pays his debts; he is a safe adviser; he doesn't drink whisky; folks depend on him; all this part of Indiana believes in him.' From that day to this, I have never taken up the *South Bend Register* without thinking of this eulogy, and envying the man who had justly entitled himself to it in the dawn of his manhood."

Mr. Colfax himself, in his reply to this speech, acknowledged that in the early history of the newspaper, which numbered but two hundred and fifty subscribers when he established it, he was often compelled to labor far into the hours of the night. His paper was, from the first, Whig in its politics, and frank and outspoken in its expression of opinion on all political questions, but though in a district then strongly Democratic, and surrounded by Democratic papers which waged a constant, and often unscrupulous warfare against his paper and his principles, the constant readers of his paper cannot recall a single harsh or intemperate expression in his columns, in reply to the fierce personal attacks made upon him.

In the year 1848, Mr. Colfax was appointed a delegate from his adopted State to the Whig National Convention, of which he was elected secretary, and although extremely young, he discharged the functions of his office commendably. In 1850,

he was elected a member of the Indiana State Convention, having for its object the preparation of a State Constitution. Here he persistently opposed the unmanly clause prohibiting free colored men from entering the State. This clause, submitted separately to the people, was indorsed by majorities of eight thousand in his district and ninety thousand in the State, yet, where a mere political trimmer would have waived the personal issue, he, like a man, openly voted with the minority, though he was at the time a candidate for Congress. In 1851, unanimously nominated from the ninth district of Indiana, he made a joint canvass with his opponent, Dr. Fitch, and, solely on account of this vote, was defeated by two hundred and sixteen majority, although the district had been Democratic, by large majorities, for many years.

In 1852, he was again sent as a delegate to the Whig National Convention, of which also he was appointed secretary. In 1854, Mr. Colfax was elected to Congress as a Republican nominee; and from that time to the present, he has always occupied his seat as a Representative.

At the opening of the Thirty-fourth Congress occurred the memorable contest for the speakership, resulting in the election of Mr. Banks to that position. During that session Mr. Colfax took his stand as one of the most promising of our Congressional debaters. His speech, upon the then all-absorbing topic of the extension of slavery and the aggressions of the slave power, was a masterly effort, and stamped him at once as a most influential orator. This speech was circulated throughout the country at the time, and was used as a campaign document by the Frémont party during the canvass of 1856. Five hundred thousand copies of it were issued, a compliment perhaps never before received by any member of Congress.

Mr. Colfax labored zealously for John C. Frémont, who was

his personal friend; the result of that campaign is well known. In the Thirty-fifth Congress, Mr. Colfax was elected to the important position of Chairman to the Committee on Post-Offices and Post Roads, which place he continued to hold until his election as Speaker to the Thirty-eighth Congress, on the 7th of December, 1863, to which responsible position he was subsequently twice re-elected—to the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses—honors awarded before only to Henry Clay.

As Speaker of the House of Representatives he was ready, seldom hesitating to replace a word, or failing to touch the quick of a question, never employing any words for stage effect; but straightforward, direct, and often exquisitely elegant in image and diction, he was, in the genuine sense, eloquent. His every speech was a success, and though one often wondered how he would extricate himself, in the varied and often untimely calls made upon his treasury, he always closed with added wealth of gratified admirers. If George Canning was once the Cicero of the British Senate, Schuyler Colfax was equally that of the American House.

In the chair, he was suave and forbearing almost to excess, but as impartial as the opposite Congressional clock. Nothing escaped him, nothing nonplussed him. The marvel of his presiding watchfulness was equaled alone by the intuitive, rapid solution of the knotty point suddenly presented, and having either no precedent, or, at best, but a very distant one. In every quandary, the Indiana Legislature, or the Journal reporter, or the persistent student of Jefferson or Cushing, or all, rally to the rescue of the wondering House and still smiling chairman. The advocate is never confused with the judge. While presiding, it is as difficult to remember, as when debating to forget, that he is radically a Radical.

He was one of the first advocates, and is still one of the

warmest friends of the Pacific railroad. Indeed, he takes a warm interest in any movement looking to the development of the boundless resources of the great West. It was, doubtless, the interest he felt in that section of the country, which induced him to take his celebrated journey "Across the Continent." His trip was a perilous one, but his welcome at "the other end of the line" was so spontaneous, truly genuine and heartfelt, that it more than repaid him for all the dangers and hardships he passed through. This tour led him to prepare one of the most entertaining lectures ever delivered in this country. It was listened to with rapt attention by the people of almost every city in the North. Pecuniarily, however, it was of but little profit to him, for with that liberality which has ever been a marked trait in his character, the entire proceeds of a lecture were oftener donated to some charitable purpose than retained for his own emolument.

His intimacy and confidential relations with Mr. Lincoln are well known. They labored hand in hand as brothers in the cause of the Union, holding frequent and protracted interviews on all subjects looking to the overthrow of the rebellion, for there were no divisions between the executive and legislative branches of the Government, then, as there have been since. A patriot was at the head of the Government then—a statesman who could give counsel, but often needed it as well. During the darkest hours of that bloody drama which cast so deep a shadow over the hearts and homes of the nation, they were ever cheerful and hopeful. Confident in the justness of the war waged for the preservation of the Union, and placing a Christian reliance in that Providence which guides and shapes the destiny of nations, great reverses, which caused others to fear and tremble, at times almost to despair, seemed only to inspire them with

greater zeal and a firmer belief in the ultimate triumph of our cause.

There has not been a great radical measure before the country, since his advent into Congress, that Mr. Colfax has not supported with all the warmth of his nature. But he is not one who will rush blindly forward into a pitfall. He would rather make haste slowly, that no backward step may be necessary—he would duly weigh every measure in all its bearings, and from its various standpoints, before committing himself wholly to any particular line of action relative to the subjects under consideration. Previous to his re-election as Speaker of the Thirty-ninth Congress, in response to a serenade tendered him, he said:

"*The danger is in too much precipitation.* Let us, rather, make haste slowly, and then we can hope that the foundation of our Government, when thus reconstructed on the basis of indisputable loyalty, will be as eternal as the stars."

Had this warning been heeded, much of the legislation of the Thirty-ninth Congress would have needed no revision at the hands of that which has succeeded it.

His course, while in the great council of the nation, was one of straightforward, unswerving integrity; and he counted many friends among even his political opponents. He so discharged the important duties of the speakership, that he was considered one of the best presiding officers that has ever been called upon to conduct the proceedings of a great body.

Mr. Colfax is only forty-nine years of age. In personal appearance, he is of medium height, solid and compactly built. His hair and whiskers are brown, now a little tinged with gray. His countenance has a pleasing and intellectual expression. His person is graceful, and his manner denotes unusual energy. His eyebrows are light in color, and overshadow eyes which sparkle with intelligence and good-humor. He is strongly affectionate

and kindly in disposition. Whenever his mother-in-law appeared in the gallery of the House, Mr. Colfax generally called some member to the chair, and went immediately to her side. Such a trait in his character serves still further to deepen the respect and esteem in which he is held everywhere.

As a speaker, Mr. Colfax is earnest, frank, pointed and fluent. His manner is pleasing, and his language is always well-chosen and refined. Urbane in demeanor, and courteous and fair toward opponents, he always commanded respect and attention on both sides of the House. He is zealous and fearless in maintaining his principles, though his benevolence and good-humor so temper his speeches that he gains few or no enemies. He is one of the few whose personal qualities have secured exemption from the bitterness of feeling generally displayed by the friends of pro-slavery aggression toward their opponents. He seldom indulges in oratorical flourish, but goes straight to his subject, which, with his keenly perceptive intellect, he penetrates to the bottom; while his close, logical reasoning presents his aspect of a question in its strongest light.

On the question, "Shall freedmen be citizens, and be allowed the right of suffrage?" he took an early opportunity of avowing his views. At the opening of the second session of the Thirty-ninth Congress, he said: "The Creator is leading us in his own way rather than our own. He has put all men on an equality before Divine law, and demands that we shall put all men upon the same equality before human law."

In an address delivered in 1867, before the Union League club of New York, we find these eloquent passages:—

"How rapidly and yet how gloriously we are making history; but posterity will read it on the open pages of our country's annals. Six years ago—how brief it seems—but a fraction of an individual's life—but a breath in the life of a nation—the banners

of rebellion waved over the hostile armies and stolen forts from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, and the on-looking world predicted the certain downfall of the Republic. Now, thanks to our gallant armies and their gallant commanders—Grant the inflexible—Sherman the conqueror—Sheridan the invincible—and all their compatriots on sea and shore—but one flag waves over the land—the flag that Washington loved, and that Jackson, and Scott, and Taylor adorned with their brilliant victories—the flag dearer to us in all its hours of peril than when gilded by the sunshine of prosperity and fanned by the zephyrs of peace, at last triumphant, unquestioned, unassailed. Six years ago, millions of human beings born on American soil, created by the same Divine Father, destined to the same eternal hereafter, were subject to sale like the swine of the sty, or the beasts of the field, and our escutcheon was dimmed and dishonored by the stain of American Slavery. *To-day*, auction-blocks, and manacles, and whipping-posts are, thank God, things of the past, while the slave himself has become the citizen, with the freedman's weapon of protection—the ballot—in his own right hand. Nor can we forget, while rejoicing over this happy contrast, the human agencies so potential to its accomplishment. First, and conspicuous among the rest, rises before my mind the tall form of a martyred President, whose welcome step no mortal ear shall ever listen to again. Faithful to his oath, faithful to his country, faithful to the brave armies his word called to the field, he never swerved a hair's breadth from his determination to crush this mighty rebellion, and all that gives it aid, and comfort, and support. Unjustly and bitterly denounced, by his enemies and yours, as a usurper and despot; compared to Nero and Caligula, and all other tyrants whose base deeds blacken the pages of history, your noble League stood by him amid this tempest of detraction, cordially and to

the end; and you have now your abundant vindication and reward. Though the torch of slander was lit at every avenue of his public life while he lived, the civilized world would become mourners at his coffin; and with those libelous tongues hushed, our whole land enshrines his memory to-day with the Father of the Country he saved."

* * * * * * *

"I cannot doubt the future of the great party which has won these triumphs and established these principles. It has been so brilliantly successful, because it recognized liberty and justice as its cardinal principles; and because, scorning all prejudices and defying all opprobrium, it allies itself to the cause of the humble and the oppressed. It sought to enfranchise, not to enchain; to elevate, not to tread down; to protect, never to abuse. It cared for the humblest rather than for the mightiest —for the weakest rather than the strongest. It recognized that the glory of states and nations was justice to the poorest and feeblest. And another secret of its wondrous strength was that it fully adopted the striking injunction of our murdered chief: 'With malice toward none, with charity for all, but with firmness for the right, as God gives us to see the right.' Only last month the British Chancellor of the Exchequer, in defending his Reform bill, which holds the word of promise to the ear to break it to the hope, exclaimed: 'This is a nation of classes, and must remain so.' If I may be pardoned for replying, I would say: 'This is a nation of *freemen*, and it must remain so.' Faithful to the traditions of our fathers in sympathizing with all who long for the maintenance or advancement of liberty in Mexico or England, in Ireland or Crete, and yet carefully avoiding all entangling alliances or violations of the law, with a recognition from ocean to ocean, North and South alike, of the right of all citizens bound by the law to share in the choice of

the law-maker, and thus to have a voice in the country their heart's blood must defend, our centennial anniversary of the Declaration of Independence will find us as an entire nation, recognizing the great truths of that immortal *Magna Charta*, enjoying a fame wide as the world and eternal as the stars, with a prosperity that shall eclipse in future all the brightest glories of the past."

Religion gained the early adherence of Mr. Colfax, who many years ago began a Christian life, joining the Dutch Reformed Church, and serving humbly and usefully as a Sunday school teacher for twelve years. The "pious passages" so frequent in his public speeches are not mere sentiment or oratorical arts, for he loves to talk, in private, of how God rules and how distinctly and how often, in our history, his holy arm has been revealed; and the ascription of praise comes from a worshipping heart, reliant on God through Christ. His personal example at Washington is luminous. When twenty, he made vows of strict abstinence, which have never been broken. Liquors and wines are never used at his receptions, while Presidential dinners and diplomatic banquets are utterly powerless to abate one jot or tittle of his firmness. Many of our readers well remember his speech at a Congressional temperance meeting, and how he banished the sale of liquor from all parts of the Capitol within his jurisdiction.

On the 21st of May, 1868, the National Republican Union Convention, in session at Chicago, nominated Mr. Colfax as their candidate for the vice-presidency, on the fifth ballot, his name receiving five hundred and twenty-two votes out of the six hundred and fifty polled.

At the Presidential election, November 3d, 1868, General Grant and Mr. Colfax were elected President and Vice-President, and on the 4th of March, 1869, Mr. Colfax took his seat as

President of the Senate, and his inaugural oath as Vice-President of the United States. The President of the Senate is not like the Speaker of the House, an elected member of the body over which he presides, and hence can take no part in the discussions of that body, nor is he allowed any other than a casting vote. The rules of the Senate are also very different from those of the House, and of late years it has lost its ancient reputation for dignity and decorum, and under the lead of some of its less discreet members, has seemed to be striving to win from the House its old name of reproach, "the National Bear Garden."

To preside successfully over such a body is even a more difficult task under the circumstances, than over the more boisterous, but at the same time more easily controlled, House of Representatives. Yet in a position which some of the ablest parliamentarians had found exceedingly difficult, and among men who sometimes regard themselves as entirely above the law, it is much to his credit that Vice-President Colfax has presided with an easy dignity and grace which has been recognized by all classes as wholly without partiality, and has furnished no grounds of complaint. His excessive labors at one time broke down his health, and compelled him to take a long rest; but his temperate habits, his systematic and methodical ways, and his vigorous constitution enabled him to recover his health completely.

In 1870, Mr. Colfax wrote to a friend in New York declaring his purpose to withdraw forever from public life at the close of his present term of office. This letter was published and variously commented on by the press. Subsequently the urgency of his friends induced him to reconsider this intention, and suffer his name to be brought before the Philadelphia National Republican Convention; but this was done at so late a date that Senator Wilson, who had been a competitor for the nomination in 1868, had a decided advantage, and was nominated by a small majority on the first ballot, at Philadelphia.

HANNIBAL HAMLIN.

"WHAT can you raise here?" inquired a distinguished English agriculturist, of a friend, a citizen of Maine, as they were traversing the rocky, iron-bound coast, against which the North Atlantic dashes its waves in summer and winter. "Your soil seems so rocky and sterile that no crops will thrive in it. What can you grow?" "We raise MEN," was the proud reply. Yes, the sunrise State does raise *men*, and one of the best of her products, was the man whose history we propose here to sketch briefly.

HANNIBAL HAMLIN was born in Paris, Maine, August 27th, 1809. His ancestors were from Massachusetts, and of Puritan and revolutionary stock. His grandfather, Eleazar Hamlin, commanded a company of minute men in the revolution, and had five sons enrolled under him, some of whom served through the whole war. Cyrus, one of the sons of Eleazar Hamlin, studied medicine, married and settled at Livermore, Oxford county, Maine, where he acquired a very extensive practice, and was also clerk of the courts for Oxford county, for a number of years. Hannibal was the sixth son of Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, and, from his boyhood, was a studious, manly boy. His brothers have, several of them, attained distinction. His eldest brother, Elijah, has long been one of the most prominent men of the State; Cyrus, another brother, is well known as a missionary of the American Board, at Constantinople, and

is now at the head of the Robert college there. Few men have been more widely useful. It was the intention of Dr. Hamlin to give Hannibal a collegiate education, and before he was sixteen, he was nearly fitted for college, when the failure of his brother Cyrus's health led to a change of plans, and he commenced the study of medicine, while Hannibal remained at home to labor on the farm, employing the winter in surveying a township of forest land on Dead river, which his father and others had purchased. When he was eighteen years of age, his father directed him to undertake the study of law, with his brother Elijah. He commenced his studies, but at the end of six or eight months, his father died, and he returned home, and labored on the farm, for the next two years. He was next, for about a year, joint proprietor and editor with Horatio King, afterwards assistant postmaster general, of a Democratic newspaper, *The Jeffersonian*, published at Paris, the county seat of Oxford county. To this paper he contributed both prose and poetical articles. But his inclination was still to the study of the law, and having sold out his interest in the paper, he entered, with his mother's sanction, the office of Hon. Joseph G. Cole, and, for the next three years, prosecuted his legal studies with him and with the firm of Fessenden, Deblois, and Fessenden, the junior partner being the late Senator from Maine. In January, 1833, he was admitted to the Oxford county bar, and immediately commenced a successful practice, which continued to increase until 1851, when he relinquished farther practice of his profession. He soon after removed to Hampden, a flourishing village six miles below Bangor, on the Penobscot, and married the same year. From 1836 to 1840, he was each year elected to the State Legislature, and in 1837, 1839, and 1840, was speaker of the House. In 1840, he was the Democratic candidate for Representative in Congress, but was defeated by about

two hundred votes. In 1843, he was again a candidate and was elected by about a thousand majority.

Though elected as a Democrat, and voting with that party on all other questions, Mr. Hamlin, from the commencement of his Congressional career, uniformly opposed the extension and aggressions of slavery. His first speech in Congress was in opposition to the twenty-first rule, by which abolition petitions were excluded; and he ably and strenuously opposed the annexation of Texas, not because he was averse to new accessions of territory, but because the bill provided for the extension of slavery there. His speech, in opposition to the annexation on these terms, was one of remarkable eloquence, and its defence of New England against the attacks of southern members, was one of the finest passages of parliamentary oratory. "I am sure, sir," he said, "that the hardy sons of the ice-bound region of New England, have poured out their blood without stint, to protect the shores of the South, or to avenge her wrongs. Their bones are even now bleaching beneath the sun, on many a southern hill; and the monuments of their brave devotion may still be traced, wherever their country's flag has floated on the battle field, or the breeze, upon the lakes, the ocean, and the land:—

"'New England's dead! New England's dead!
On every field they lie,
On every field of strife made red,
With bloody victory!
Their bones are on our northern hills,
And on the southern plain;
By brook and river, mount and rills,
And in the sounding main.'

"I glory in New England and New England's institutions. There she stands, with her free schools, and her free labor, her fearless enterprise, her indomitable energy! With her rocky

hills, her torrent streams, her green valleys, her heaven pointed spires; there she stands a moral monument around which the gratitude of her country binds the wreath of fame, while protected freedom shall repose forever at its base."

Mr. Hamlin was re-elected to Congress in 1844, and though known mainly as a working, rather than a talking member, (and his reputation was of the highest, as an efficient business man,) he took some part in the debates, handling the most important questions with great ability. Among the topics on which he spoke were the public land question; on giving notice to the British Government to terminate the joint occupancy of Oregon; on the mode of raising troops for the Mexican war; on the mode of increasing the army, and on establishing a territorial government for Oregon. He also offered the Wilmot Proviso as an amendment to the famous "three million bill."

On his return home he served for one session in the Maine Legislature, and in May, 1848, was elected to fill the vacancy in the United States Senate, caused by the death of Ex-Governor Fairfield. In July, 1851, he was again chosen Senator, for the full term, by the Democrats and Free Soilers. His decided opposition to slavery had alienated a few of the pro-slavery Democrats in the Legislature, but their place was more than supplied by the Free Soilers, who held the balance of power in the Maine Legislature at this time.

In the Senate, Mr. Hamlin almost immediately took a position as one of the ablest members of that body. He was not given to participating in the debates on trivial matters, but on the great questions of the time he usually gave his carefully considered views, and they commanded the attention and respect of the entire Senate. As a working member, he had no superior; he was chairman of the very important Committee on Commerce, from 1849 till his resignation of that position in

1856, on an occasion to be presently noticed, and drew up and matured many of the bills which have proved so beneficial to our national commerce. He was also chairman of the Committee on the District of Columbia, and an active member of other important committees. He was outspoken and decided in his efforts for the repression of slavery, and in opposition to its aggressive tendencies, and the purpose of its friends to extend it over all the new territories, from his entrance into the Senate. One of his earliest speeches, in 1848, on the bill providing a territorial government for Oregon, denounced in strong and manly terms this purpose of the pro-slavery men, and in the debates on the admission of California, he was equally explicit and earnest. He advocated in the same session the abolition of the practice of flogging in the navy. On commercial topics, his most important and effective speeches were, on the ocean mail service; on regulating the liabilities of ship owners; on providing for the greater security of lives on steamboats; in defence of the river and harbor bill; for the codifications of the revenue laws, etc.

Up to 1856, Mr. Hamlin had acted with the Democratic party on all questions, except those connected with the extension of slavery, directly or indirectly. He opposed the repeal of the Missouri compromise, the Kansas and Nebraska bill, and the Fugitive Slave act, but in all these, others affiliated with that party had acted with him; but the time came, at the national Democratic Convention at Cincinnati, in June, 1856, when that party succumbed to the slave power, and delivered themselves over to the rule and dictation of the South; then Mr. Hamlin felt that he must sever the ties which had hitherto bound him to them. He took the first opportunity of doing this which offered, rising in his place in the Senate, June 12th, 1856, and resigning his position as chairman of the Committee on Com-

merce, and assigning as his reason, that after the platform and resolutions adopted by the convention at Cincinnati, he could no longer maintain political associations with a party which insisted on such doctrines. Thenceforward, he became identified with the Republican party. Two or three weeks later he was nominated by the Republicans for Governor of Maine, and made a personal canvass of the State, speaking nearly one hundred times in the different counties. The Democrats had carried the State by a large majority the year before, and were then in power, but Mr. Hamlin was elected in September, 1856, by an absolute majority of eighteen thousand over both the competing candidates, and of twenty-three thousand over his Democratic competitor, more than double the majority ever given to any other candidate in that State. On the 7th of January, 1857, he resigned his seat in the Senate and was the same day inaugurated Governor of Maine. Nine days later, January 16th, 1857, he was a third time elected to the Senate, for the term of six years from March 4th, 1857, and on the 20th of February resigned the office of governor, and took his seat again in the Senate, on the 4th of March. During the next four years, he was the active and eloquent defender of Republican principles in the United States Senate, discussing the Kansas question with consummate ability, attacking the Lecompton Constitution, replying with great pungency and effect to Senator Hammond's "mud-sill" speech, and repelling his assaults upon the free laborers of the North. He also exposed the unfairness and gross sectional partiality of the Democratic majority in the Senate, in the formation of the committees, and, in an able speech, defended American rights in regard to the fisheries.

On the 18th of May, 1860, at the Republican National Convention at Chicago, Mr. Hamlin was nominated as the candidate of the party for the vice-presidency on the ticket with Abraham Lincoln.

The nomination was entirely unexpected by Mr. Hamlin and took him completely by surprise. It was made spontaneously and with great unanimity. The ticket was elected, and on the 4th of March, 1861, in the midst of civil commotion and the loud muttering of the storm which was so soon to burst upon the nation, President and Vice-President were inaugurated. During the four years that followed, Mr. Hamlin was the President's right hand; calm, patient, clear-headed and far-seeing, he was able to give wise counsel, and enjoyed, throughout his administration, Mr. Lincoln's fullest confidence. It is said that in the history of our country, there has been but one other instance, in which there was full and perfect harmony between the President and Vice-President, and that was in the case of President Jackson and Vice-President Van Buren. As the presiding officer of the Senate, he has rarely, if ever, been equalled in the skill with which he conducted its proceedings and the dignity with which he guided its deliberations. So thorough was his knowledge of parliamentary rules and usages, and of the precedents of senatorial action, that not a single ruling of his, during the four years of his presidency over the Senate, was ever over-ruled by that body, and on his taking leave of it all parties united in testifying to his courtesy and impartiality.

At the Baltimore National Republican Convention, in 1864, it was at first proposed to nominate Mr. Hamlin again to the vice-presidency, which he had filled so well; there was nothing to be objected to in his conduct, and very much to praise; but it was represented that the position belonged, by right, to some loyal representative of the border, or seceded States, and this view prevailing, Andrew Johnson was nominated. It has been well said, that "with Hannibal Hamlin in the vice-presidency, either Mr. Lincoln would not have been assassinated, or we should

have been spared the trouble, discord, and disgrace which has followed."

In July, 1865, Mr. Johnson appointed Mr. Hamlin collector of the port of Boston, the most lucrative office in New England. He held the position about thirteen months, when becoming convinced that Mr. Johnson had deserted the party which elected him, and abandoned its principles, he felt that he could not retain the office, without danger of being identified with Mr. Johnson's treachery, and resigned it in the following manly letter.

"CUSTOM HOUSE, BOSTON, COLLECTOR'S OFFICE, *Aug.* 28, 1866.

"*To the President:*—

"One year ago you tendered to me, unsolicited on my part, the position of collector of customs, for the District of Boston and Charlestown. I entered upon the duties of the office, and have endeavored faithfully to discharge the same, and I trust in a manner satisfactory to the public interested therein.

"I do not fail to observe the movements and efforts which have been, and are now being made to organize a party in the country, consisting, almost exclusively, of those actively engaged in the late rebellion, and their allies, who sought by other means to cripple and embarrass the Government. These classes of persons, with a small fraction of others, constitute the organization. It proposes to defeat and overthrow the Union Republican party, and to restore to power, without sufficient guaranties for the future, and protection to men who have been loyal, those who sought to destroy the Government.

"I gave all the influence I possessed to create and uphold the Union Republican party during the war, and without the aid of which our Government would have been destroyed, and the rebellion a success.

"With such a party as has been inaugurated, and for such purposes, I have no sympathy, nor can I acquiesce in its measures by my silence. I therefore tender to you my resignation of the office of collector of customs, for the District of

Boston and Charlestown, to take effect from the time when a successor shall be appointed and qualified.

"Respectfully yours,

"H. HAMLIN."

After his resignation, Mr. Hamlin engaged in the political canvass in New York, Pennsylvania, and Maine, in the autumn of 1866, and then returned to his home in Bangor, Maine, where he remained, engaged in the management of his estate, taking part, however, in the political campaign in New Hampshire and Connecticut in the spring of 1868. Mr. Hamlin was the first choice of several of the States for the vice-presidency in the National Convention of May, 1868, and it is no discredit to the other eminent and able candidates, to say that no man could have filled the office better than he.

In the session of the Maine Legislature, in the winter of 1869, Mr. Hamlin was a fourth time elected United States Senator from that State, which position he still holds. He has been throughout, a decided supporter of President Grant's administration.

Mr. Hamlin is about six feet in height, though apparently less, in consequence of his having a slight stoop. His athletic and robust form gives a just indication of his great physical energy and power of endurance. His complexion is dark, and his eyes are of a piercing blackness.* His voice is clear, strong, melodious in its tones, and his delivery rapid, energetic, and highly effective. He speaks without verbal preparation, but without any embarrassment, and with remarkable directness.

* The southern political speakers and leaders in the presidential campaign of 1860, circulated the report widely throughout the South, and it was extensively credited there, that Mr. Hamlin was a mulatto, and that the Republicans had nominated him for the purpose of inciting the negroes to rise in rebellion against their masters. Mr. Hamlin's dark complexion was the only thing which gave the slightest plausibility to this story.

Always talking to the point, and never for mere effect, he is invariably listened to with respect and attention. As a popular orator, he has great power and eloquence. His manners, though dignified and decorous, are still remarkable for their republican simplicity. At his home on the Penobscot, he cultivates his small farm with his own hands, laboring on it every summer, with all the regularity and vigor of his youthful days. In his moral character, Mr. Hamlin is wholly without reproach, a man of pure and Christian life, and in his domestic relations, he is most devoted and affectionate. No man is more thoroughly faithful to his friends than he, and none more highly prizes a true friend. His native State honors him, and with reason, for he is one of her best products, a manly, noble man in all the relations of life.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN WADE,

LATE VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

IT would be hard to find a better illustration of the facility with which, under Republican institutions, a man of genius and integrity may rise from obscurity and humble life to the most exalted station, than is afforded in the history of Benjamin F. Wade. He has not, it is true, like his predecessor, "filled every office, from alderman of a small village to President of the United States," but he has risen from an humble though honorable and honest condition, to the highest positions in the gift of the people, and through all, has maintained himself with dignity, propriety, and honor, and with a reputation for unflinching adherence to the principles of right, justice, and freedom, which any man might covet.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN WADE was born in Feeding Hills Parish, West Springfield, Massachusetts, October 27th, 1800. He was the youngest of ten children. His father was a soldier, who fought in every revolutionary battle from Bunker Hill to Yorktown. His mother was the daughter of a Presbyterian clergyman, a woman of vigorous intellect and great force of character. She fed and clothed her brood while the father was in the army. The family was one of the poorest in New England. A portion of its scanty property was a library of twelve books. This eventually became Benjamin's possession. He read the volumes through and through, and over and over,

S P CHASE
SCHUYLER COLFAX
SIMON CAMERON
BENJ. F. WADE
O. P. MORTON
HAMILTON FISH
LYMAN TRUMBULL

after his mother had led him so far into an education as to teach him to read and write. When Ben was eighteen, he tearfully turned his back on the old plow and the older homestead; and, with seven dollars in his pocket and a bundle of clothing on his back, started to walk from Springfield, Massachusetts, to Illinois, to seek his fortune. He footed it to Ashtabula county, Ohio. There, the snow falling, he determined to wait for spring to finish his journey; hired himself out to cut wood in the forest for fifty cents per cord, and snatched hours from sleep at night to read the Bible by the light of the fire on the hearth of the log-cabin. Both the Old and the New Testaments are at his tongue's end. Spring came; but the journey to Illinois and fortune was delayed by a summer's work at chopping, logging, and grubbing, followed by a Yankee winter at school-teaching. The journey was suspended by a second year of such work, and was finally lost in an experience of driving a herd of cattle. Wade led the "lead" steer of a drove from Ohio to New York. Six times he made this trip. The last ox he led took him to Albany.* 'Twas winter. Of course,

* General Brisbin relates that on one of these occasions Mr. Wade came near losing his life. He was leading a steer as usual in front of the drove, when he came to a long covered bridge. The gate-keeper, according to the rules, would only allow a few of the herd to pass over at a time, lest their weight should injure the bridge. Wade started with the advance guard, but the cattle in the rear becoming frightened, rushed into the bridge and stampeded. Young Wade made haste to run, but finding he could not reach the other end before the frantic cattle would be upon him and trample him to death, he ran to one of the posts, and springing up, caught hold of the brace and drew himself up as high as possible. He could barely keep his legs out of the way of the horns of the cattle, but he held on while the bridge swayed to and fro, threatening every moment to break under the great weight that was upon it. At length the last of the frightened animals passed by, and our dangling hero dropped from his perch, to the astonishment of the drover, who thought he had been crushed to death, and was riding through the bridge, expecting every moment to find his crushed and mangled body."

the drover then expanded into a school-teacher. When the frost was out of the ground, scholars and teacher went to manual labor. The Erie canal got the teacher. During the summer of 1826 Wade shoveled and wheeled; "The only American I know," said Governor Seward, in a speech in the Senate, "who worked with a spade and wheelbarrow on that great improvement." Another winter of school-teaching in Ohio, and the persuasions of Elisha Whittlesey, and the friendly offer of a tavern-keeper who had got to loving Wade, to trust him bed and board without limit, drew Ben, at the age of twenty-six, into a law office, to study for the bar. He was admitted in two years. He waited another year for his first suit.

It was but a petty offence with which his first client was charged, but the young lawyer went into his defence with all his might, and secured his acquittal. His zeal and resolution secured him the friendship of the members of the bar, and after the trial was over, the good old presiding judge condescended to privately give him a word of encouragement. Mr. Wade says no one can ever know how much good the kind words of the judge did him, and how they put courage into his heart to fight the future battles of his life. Without the advantages of early education, Mr. Wade felt constantly the need of close application to his law books, and became a hard student. The lawyers soon began to notice his opinions, and the energy and confidence he threw into a case. He had a wonderful deal of sense, and could analyze a knotty question with surprising ability. Those lawyers who were far his superiors in learning and eloquence could never equal the rough backwoodsman in grasping the points in a case and presenting them to the jury.

After six years of unremitting toil, Wade found himself employed in almost every case of importance litigated in the

circuit where he practiced. He was now a man of note; his law business was constantly increasing, and money was coming in to fill his pocket. He felt, as a thousand other men have felt, that the struggle of his life was over; that it was no longer with him simply a fight for bread. The world had been met and conquered, and the master began to look about him, and consider other matters than mere questions of food and clothing. Like most men who have taken the rough world by the throat and conquered it, Mr. Wade felt how completely he was self-made, and how little he had to fear from the future.

In 1835, he was elected prosecuting attorney for the county of Ashtabula. His talent for special pleading was remarkable, and his indictments are considered models at the present time.

In 1837, Mr. Wade was offered the nomination to the State Senate from his district, and reluctantly accepted. This, Mr. Wade contends to this day, was the great mistake of his life. He has been continually successful in politics, and reached the second office in the nation; but he never fails to warn young men to stick to their professions, and let politics alone. The empty honors of public life, he contends, never repay the politician for the toils and troubles that beset him at every step; and a quiet home is infinitely to be preferred to the highest political honor.

He was just entering his thirty-eighth year when he took his seat in the State Senate of Ohio, and at once began his political career with the same earnestness that had characterized his course at the bar. As a new member, he expected no position; but his fame as a lawyer had preceded him to the capitol, and he was appointed a member of the Judiciary Committee.

Mr. Wade first directed his efforts to the repeal of the laws of Ohio whereby the poor but honest man could be imprisoned for debt by his creditor. He rapidly rose to the leadership of

the little squad of Whigs in the State Senate, and although greatly in the minority, he handled his small force so effectively as to keep the Democrats always on the defensive.

The question of the annexation of Texas coming up, Mr. Wade made haste to take bold grounds against slavery. He said:

"This State of Texas coming to the Union, as it must (if at all), with the institution of slavery interwoven with its social habits, being brought into this Union for the sole object of extending the accursed system of human bondage, it cannot have my voice or vote; for, so help me God, I will never assist in adding one rood of slave territory to this country."

Soon after his efforts to prevent the extension of slavery, the black people of Ohio began an active movement for relief from the oppressive State laws, and appealed to Mr. Wade to help them. He took their petition and presented it in the Senate, asking that "all laws might be repealed making distinctions among the people of Ohio on account of color." This raised a storm of indignation, and even some of Mr. Wade's personal and party friends warned him to desist in his efforts to place a negro on equal footing with a white man, but Wade sternly rebuked them, and insisted on his petitions being heard. At first the Senate refused to hear what the negroes had to say, but at length received their petition, and at once laid it on the table, Mr. Wade protesting, and saying, with great vehemence and earnestness to the majority: "Remember, gentlemen, you have, by your votes, in this free State of Ohio, so treated a part of her people, these black men and women."

At the close of his senatorial term, Mr. Wade found his negro doctrines had made him unpopular with his constituents. When the convention met in his district, he was not only passed over and a new man nominated, but some of the delegates thought it would be a good thing to censure him for his course. Mr.

Wade had given great offence by his vehement opposition to State appropriations for internal improvements, and the Commissioners appointed by the Legislature of Kentucky to visit Ohio and obtain, as Mr. Wade said, "the passage of a law to degrade the people of Ohio."

The bill they sought to have made a law, was one of pains and penalties, intended to repulse from Ohio the unhappy negro, whether bond or free—flying from the cruelty of a master—or, if manumitted, from the persecution of the superior class of laborers in a slave State, who abhor such rivals. Mr. Wade's noble nature revolted against the tyranny which would not allow human beings a refuge anywhere on a continent from which they had no outlet, and into which they had been dragged against their will; and he opposed the measure with all his might.

Mr. Wade, conscious that he had done right, when his senatorial term was out, returned to his home and recommenced the practice of law, resolving never again to stand for any political office. In 1840, when General Harrison was nominated for President, Mr. Wade, yielding to the wishes of his friends and the excitement and enthusiasm of the hour, took the stump, and in this campaign, for the first time in his life, became a stump orator. His speeches were plain, matter-of-fact talks, which the people thoroughly understood, and he became popular. He passed over the Reserve, addressing thousands of people, and laboring day and night for General Harrison's election. As soon as the canvass was over, he returned to his law office, at Jefferson, and began to work up his cases again, regretting that he had not paid more attention to his clients, and less to politics. He had remained single till his forty-first year, but then met with the lady who subsequently became his wife, at the residence of a client. His marriage has been an eminently

happy one, and his two children, both sons, distinguished themselves and did honor to the name they bear, during the late war.

In 1841, the people of Ohio having come to thoroughly understand and detest the speculations of internal improvements, and the Kentucky black laws, Mr. Wade's views were adopted, and he became popular as a wise legislator. The people of his district tendered him a re-nomination to the State Senate, but he declined. When the convention met, however, he was placed in nomination and triumphantly elected, by a largely increased majority over his former election.

No sooner had he taken his seat than he renewed his labors in behalf of equal rights, and the repeal of all laws making distinctions on account of color. He brought forward the petition of George W. Tyler, and fifty-four other persons, praying for the repeal of the fugitive slave law, passed by Ohio, in 1838, to please Kentucky. Wade argued, in an able speech, that negroes were men, as much as white persons, and as such entitled to personal liberty, trial by jury, testimony in the courts, and common school privileges. Kentucky was then opposed to all these things, and used her influence with Ohio, to prevent her from adopting a liberal and just policy toward her black population. That was in 1841, more than a generation ago, and although it cannot be said Kentucky has advanced much in the business of securing her black people equal rights, she has done much toward changing their complexion. Herein Kentucky and her people differed from Mr. Wade and the people of Ohio; Kentucky desired to equalize her population by nature, Ohio by law. Of the two processes we think posterity will incline to the belief that the former was the best.

In February, 1842, a "bill for the incorporation of Oberlin Collegiate Institute, an institution for the education of persons,

without regard to race or color," came up in the Senate of Ohio. Mr. Wade advocated the bill, but it was voted down. This bill afterward passed, and was the foundation of the excellent college at Oberlin, Ohio, an institution that has furnished more than five hundred anti-slavery missionaries, teachers and preachers, and done more than any other college to unmask the deformities of the system of human bondage.

While he was in the State Senate, the people of Ohio petitioned their Legislature to protest against the infamous resolution, passed by Congress in 1837, relating to slavery. This resolution was in these words:

Resolved, That all petitions, memorials, and papers touching the abolition of slavery, or buying, selling or transferring of slaves in any State, District or Territory of the United States, be laid on the table without being debated, read or referred, and that no further action whatever shall be taken thereon.

Mr. Wade was appointed a special committee, and the petition of the people of Ohio, and the resolution complained of, referred to him with directions to make a report on them. It is said Wade read and examined, for three weeks, books and authorities, before he began writing his report; be that as it may, certain it is, his report was at the time, and is still, regarded as one of the ablest anti-slavery documents ever published in this country. Thirty years have elapsed since then, and yet in all that time few reasons have been advanced against slavery that cannot be found embodied in Mr. Wade's report.

At the same session he defended, with great ability and eloquence, the course of John Quincy Adams in upholding the right of petition in Congress. Mr. Adams had been censured by the House for presenting the Haverhill resolutions, asking for the dissolution of the Union, and the Ohio Legislature undertook to justify that censure, but Mr. Wade and his anti-

slavery friends, resisted the course of the Democratic majority with great energy and ability, though not with success.

At the close of his second senatorial term, Mr. Wade declined a renomination, and again determined to leave off, forever, political life. From 1842 to 1847 he held no public office, and devoted himself to the practice of his profession and the care of his family.

In February, 1847, Mr. Wade was elected, by the Legislature, president judge of the third judicial district of the State of Ohio. His popularity at this time was unbounded. It has been the fortune of but few men to enter upon the discharge of judicial duties, having in advance secured to such an extent the unqualified confidence of the bar and people. He entered immediately upon the discharge of his duties. His district embraced the populous counties of Ashtabula, Trumbull, Mahoning, Portage, and Summit. The business had accumulated vastly under his predecessor. The same territory has now three resident judges, with but slightly increased business.

It is but truth to say, that in no country on earth has the same number of people had the same amount of important and satisfactory justice administered to them in the same length of time, as had the district under the administration of Judge Wade. The younger members of the profession, who were so fortunate as to practice in this circuit during, Judge Wade's term upon the bench, will remember with lasting gratitude his kindness and judicial courtesy.

During the time he was upon the bench, Judge Wade increased (if possible) in the confidence and admiration of his political friends, and disarmed those who had differed with him, and had felt the withering power of his logic and eloquence on the stump and at the bar. His judicial career was brought to a sudden and unexpected close in March, 1851, while he was

holding a term of court at Akron, Summit county, by his election by the Legislature, then in session, to the United States Senate.

When the news of his election reached him, Judge Wade was on the bench trying a case. The firing of cannon, and shouting of men, announced that some unusual event had taken place and presently a boy came running into the court with a dispatch informing Mr. Wade he had been elected a United States Senator from Ohio.

The intelligence surprised no one so much as the judge, who had no knowledge that his name had been mentioned in connection with it, and had made no efforts to secure a nomination. The members of the bar in his judicial district were full of regret at his loss to the bench, but were pleased that his talents were at last appreciated. Resolutions of mingled regret and congratulation were passed, almost unanimously, in the various counties comprising his circuit.

Mr. Wade was again persuaded to reluctantly give up his law business, and go into politics. He did so, however, with less regret this time than before, because the people of Ohio had come up to his anti-slavery views. He felt that in representing the majority of the people of his State, he need make no sacrifice of his own opinions, and he was most anxious to attack slavery at the capital, and, if possible, arouse the people of the country to the enormities of the institution, as he had aroused the people of Ohio.

After his election to the United States Senate, in 1851, Mr. Wade resigned his seat on the bench, and retired to his home at Jefferson.

In 1852, Mr. Wade advocated the nomination and election of General Scott to the presidency. He still insisted, and ardently hoped, that the Whig party, with which he had always acted

and in which he saw so much to approve and admire, would yet be instrumental in bringing back the Government to the purpose of its founders. Stimulated by this consideration, he again took the stump, in and out of Ohio, and made the hustings ring with the clarion sound of his voice. Wherever he was heard, his reasoning was listened to with the most profound attention; and where he failed to convince, he obtained credit for honesty of purpose and powerful effort.

Mr. Wade continued to act with the Whig party until 1854, when the proposition to repeal the Missouri Compromise began to agitate Congress. In March, 1854, he made a speech in the Senate, clearly defining his position, and fully demonstrating his determined hostility to a measure which, he predicted, would be fraught with more evil to the country, and danger to its peace, than had ever before disturbed its prosperity. After this speech he contented himself with watching the events which he saw must ultimately end in the consummation of all the evils he had predicted. He learned, by discussion of the measure, that it was to be carried by a combination of the southern Whigs, and those who for the occasion assumed the name of "National Democrats." At this union for such a purpose, his heart sickened, and he prepared himself to give utterance to the noble sentiments and awful warnings contained in his speech, delivered on the night of the final passage of that measure in the Senate. The Tribune of that date appropriately called that speech "the new Declaration of Independence." In this speech Mr. Wade takes a final farewell of his former Whig friends of the South, but not until he had seen solemnized the nuptials between them and the Democratic party. We cannot refrain from giving a few extracts from this speech. He said:—

"Mr. President: I do not intend to debate this subject further. The humiliation of the North is complete and overwhelming.

No southern enemy of hers can wish her deeper degradation. God knows I feel it keenly enough, and I have no desire to prolong the melancholy spectacle. * * * I have all my life belonged to the great National Whig party, and never yet have I failed, with all the ability I have, to support her regular candidates, come from what portion of the Union they might, and much oftener has it been my lot to battle for a southern than for a northern candidate for the presidency; and when such candidates were assailed by those who were jealous of slaveholders, and did not like to yield up the Government to such hands, how often have I encountered the violent prejudices of my own section with no little hazard to myself. How triumphantly would I appeal on such occasions to southern honor—to the magnanimity of soul which I believed always actuated southern gentlemen. Alas! alas! if God will pardon me for what I have done, I will promise to sin no more. * * * We certainly cannot have any further political connection with the Whigs of the South; they have rendered such connection impossible. An impassable gulf separates us, and must hereafter separate us. The southern wing of the old Whig party have joined their fortunes with what is called the National Democracy, and I wish you joy in your new connections. * * * To-morrow, I believe, is to be an eclipse of the sun, and I think it perfectly meet and proper that the sun in the heavens, and the glory of the Republic should both go into obscurity and darkness together. Let the bill then pass; it is a proper occasion for so dark and damning a deed."

No extract can do any thing like justice to the mind that conceived, and the noble manliness that gave this speech utterance. From the time Mr. Wade made this speech, he has known no Whig party, but devoted himself, soul and body, to the advocacy and defence of the measures of the Republican party.

In the struggle over the Kansas-Nebraska bill, Mr. Wade came fully before the country as a debater. The southern fire-eaters and northern doughfaces combined to break him down,

but he hurled them back with surprising ability, and for the first time the southerners learned they had a northern master in the United States Senate, and were overmatched whenever they came in contact with the old Ohio Senator.* The New

* It is to this portion of Mr. Wade's career that the story so graphically told by General Brisbin belongs, and it illustrates so well his utter fearlessness that we cannot refrain from quoting it.

Soon after taking his seat, he witnessed one of those scenes so common in the Senate in those days. A southern fire-eater made an attack on a northern Senator, and Wade was amazed and disgusted at the cringing, cowardly way in which the northern man bore the taunts and insults of the hot-headed southerner. As no allusion was made to himself or State, Mr. Wade sat still, but when the Senate adjourned, he said openly, if ever a southern Senator made such an attack on him or his State, while he sat on that floor, he would brand him as a liar. This coming to the ears of the southern men, a Senator took occasion to pointedly speak a few days afterwards of Ohio and her people as negro thieves. Instantly Mr. Wade sprang to his feet and pronounced the Senator a liar. The southern Senators were thunderstruck, and gathered around their champion, while the northern men grouped about Wade. A feeler was put out from the southern side, looking to retraction, but Mr. Wade retorted in his peculiar style, and demanded an apology for the insult offered himself and the people he represented. The matter thus closed, and a fight was looked upon as certain. The next day a gentleman called on the Senator from Ohio, and asked the usual question touching his acknowledgment of the code.

"I am here," he responded, "in a double capacity. I represent the State of Ohio, and I represent Ben. Wade. As a Senator I am opposed to duelling. As Ben. Wade, I recognize the code."

"My friend feels aggrieved," said the gentleman, "at what you said in the Senate yesterday, and will ask for an apology or satisfaction."

"I was somewhat embarrassed," continued Senator Wade, "by my position yesterday, as I have some respect for the Chamber. I now take this opportunity to say what I then thought, and you will, if you please, repeat it. Your friend is a foul-mouthed old blackguard."

"Certainly, Senator Wade, you do not wish me to convey such a message as that?"

"Most undoubtedly I do; and will tell you for your own benefit, this friend of yours will never notice it. I will not be asked for either retraction, explanation, or a fight."

Next morning Mr. Wade came into the Senate, and proceeding to his seat, deliberately drew from under his coat two large pistols, and unlocking

York Tribune, speaking of his first great speech on the Kansas Nebraska bill says:—

"There are many fine orations and good arguments delivered in the United States Senate from time to time, but not often a really good speech. In order to have a good speech, there must be a man behind it. Such a speech we have in the powerful effort of Judge Wade, and in this case the speech is but the just measure of the man."

Numberless are the incidents told of Mr. Wade's sharp and telling hits made during this protracted and famous debate. We subjoin a few, for most of which we are indebted to General Brisbin.

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his desk laid them inside. The southern men looked on in silence, while the northern members enjoyed to the fullest extent the fire-eaters' surprise at the proceedings of the plucky Ohio Senator. No further notice was taken of the affair of the day before. Wade was not challenged, but ever afterwards treated with the utmost politeness and consideration by the Senator who had so insultingly attacked him.

But, while Mr. Wade was not to be intimidated by the bullying of southern fire-eaters, no man living surpassed him in his intense contempt for northern doughfaces. Another incident, not narrated by Gen. Brisbin, but which occurred in the session of 1852–3 illustrates this very forcibly. Hon. Charles G. Atherton of New Hampshire, better known as "Gag Atherton," from his introduction of the resolution to lay all anti-slavery petitions on the table, was emphatically a "Northern man with Southern principles." One day, Mr. Wade, who was personally very popular, even with his political opponents, was conversing with Ex-Governor Morehead of Kentucky, who was then visiting Washington, when Atherton came up, and at once began an attack on Mr. Wade, in regard to the Fugitive Slave law. "Why, Mr. Wade," he said, "if a nigger had run away from a good master in Kentucky, and came to your house in Ohio, wouldn't you arrest him, and send him back to his master?" "No! indeed, I wouldn't;" replied Mr. Wade. "Would you, Atherton?" "Certainly, I would," replied Mr. Atherton, "I should deem it my duty, to enforce that as much as any other law." Mr. Wade turned to Morehead; "Well, Governor, what do you say? Would you arrest a nigger and send him back under such circumstances?" "No," replied Governor Morehead, gruffly, "I'd see him d—d first." "Well," said Old Ben, after a moment's pause, "I don't know as I can blame you, seeing you have got such a *thing* as this" (pointing to Atherton) to do it for you."

Mr. Pugh, Judge Wade's colleague in the Senate, was an intense pro-slavery Democrat; he was a man of very fair ability, but no match in wit or sarcasm for his radical colleague, yet he often sought a collision, and Mr. Wade never hesitated to reply to his challenge. One day, Pugh had put some taunting questions to him respecting the common brotherhood of mankind. Wade replied:—

"I have always believed, heretofore, in the doctrines of the Declaration of Independence, that all men are born free and equal; but of late it appears that some men are born slaves, and I regret that they are not black, so all the world might know them." As he said this he pointed to Pugh, and stood looking at him for several moments, with a scowl and expression of countenance that was perfectly ferocious.

Mr. Brown, of Mississippi, interrupted him just as he had said, "I know very well, sir, with what a yell of triumph the passage of this bill will be hailed both in the South and in pandemonium."

Mr. Brown.—"Do you know what is going on there?" [Laughter.]

Mr. Wade.—"I do not pretend to know precisely what is on foot there; but I think it pretty evident that there is a very free communication between that country and this body, and unless I am greatly mistaken, I see the dwarfish medium by which that communication is kept up." [Great laughter, and a voice on the southern side, "I guess he's got you, Brown."]

During the argument on the Nebraska bill, Mr. Badger, then a Senator from North Carolina, drew a glowing picture of slavery. He had, he said, been nursed by a black woman, and had grown from childhood to manhood under her care He loved his old black mammy; and now, if he was going to Nebraska, and the opponents of the bill succeeded in prohibit-

ing slavery there, he could not take his old mammy with him Turning to Mr. Wade, he said:—"Surely you will not prevent me from taking my old mammy with me?"

"Certainly not," replied Mr. Wade; "but that is not the difficulty in the mind of the Senator. It is because, if we make the territory free, he cannot sell his old mammy when he has got her there."

Mr. Wade was arguing to show that slaves were not property in the constitutional meaning of the term. He said: "If a man carries his horse out of a slave State into a free one, he does not lose his property interest in him; but if he carries his slave into a free State, the law makes him free."

Mr. Butler, interrupting him, said: "Yes, but they won't stay with you; they love us so well they will run off, and come back, in spite of you and your boasted freedom."

Mr. Wade smilingly replied, amid roars of laughter: "Oh, yes, Senator, I know they love you so well, you have to make a Fugitive Slave law to catch them."

The southern men, having tried in vain to head off Mr. Wade, appealed to their northern allies to help them. One day Mr. Douglas rose in his seat, and interrupted Mr. Wade, who was speaking. Instantly the chamber became silent as death, and all eyes were turned in the direction of the two standing Senators. Every one expected to see Wade demolished in a moment, by the great Illinois Senator.

"You, sir," said Mr. Douglas, in measured tones, "continually compliment southern men who support this bill (Nebraska), but bitterly denounce northern men who support it. Why is this? You say it is a moral wrong; you say it is a crime. If that be so, is it not as much a crime for a southern man to support it, as for a northern man to do so?"

Mr. Wade.—"No, sir, I say not."

Mr. Douglas.—"The Senator says not. Then he entertains a different code of morals from myself, and—"

Mr Wade interrupting Douglas, and pointing to him, with scorn marked on every lineament of his face, "Your code of morals! Your morals!! My God, I hope so, sir."

The giant was hit in the forehead, and after standing for a moment with his face red as scarlet, dropped silently into his seat, while Mr. Wade proceeded with his speech as quietly as though nothing had occurred.

Mr. Douglas was angry, however, and closely watched Wade for a chance to pounce upon and scalp him. It soon occurred, and in this way: Mr. Wade had said something complimentary about Colonel Lane, of Kansas, when Mr. Douglas rose and said: "Colonel Lane cannot be believed—he has been guilty of perjury and forgery."

Mr. Wade.—"And what proof, sir, have you of these allegations? Your unsupported word is not sufficient."

Mr. Douglas.—"I have the affidavit of Colonel Lane, in which, some time since, he swore one thing, and now states another."

Mr. Wade.—"And you, sir, a lawyer, presume to charge this man with being guilty of forgery and perjury, and then offer *him* as a witness to prove your *own* word."

Douglas saw in a moment he was hopelessly caught, and attempted to retreat, but Wade pounced upon him and gave him a withering rebuke, while the chamber shook with roars of laughter. Such scenes have to be witnessed to fully understand them, as there is as much in the exhibition as in the words.

Mr. Douglas continued to badger Wade, sometimes getting the better of him, but often getting roughly handled, until Wade, worn out with defending himself, determined to become the attacking party. Soon afterward, the "Little Giant" was

bewailing the fate of the nation, and picturing the sad condition it would be in if the Free Soilers succeeded. Having worked himself up into a passion, when he was at the highest pitch, Mr. Wade rose in his seat and said, with indescribable coolness, "Well, what are you going to do about it?" Douglas, for a moment, was surprised and dumbfounded, and then attempted to proceed; but the pith was knocked out of his argument, and the Senators only smiled at his earnestness, and he, at last, sat down in disgust.

Mr. Douglas afterward said, "That interrogatory of Wade's was the most effective speech I ever heard in the Senate. Confound the man; it was so ridiculous, and put so comically, I knew not what answer to make him, and became ridiculous myself in not being able to tell 'what I was going to do about it.'"

While the Lecompton bill was under discussion, Mr. Toombs, of Georgia, referring to the minority, of which Mr. Wade was one, said: "The majority have rights and duties, and I trust there is fidelity enough to themselves and their principles, and to their country, in the majority, to stand together at all hazards, and crush this factious minority."

Instantly, Mr. Wade sprang to his feet, and shaking his fist at Toombs, roared out: "Have a care, sir; have a care. You can't crush me nor my people. You can never conquer us, we will die first. I may fall here in the Senate chamber, but I will never make any compromise with any such men. You may bring a majority and out-vote me, but, so help me God, I will neither compromise or be crushed. That's what I have to say to your threat."

A southern Senator one day said, roughly, to Wade, "If you don't stop your abolition doctrines, we will break up the Union. We will secede, sir!" Wade held out his hand, and said, com-

ically, "Good-by, Senator, if you are going now; I pray you don't delay a moment on my account."

Senator Evans, of South Carolina, a very grave and good old man, one day was exhibiting in the Senate chamber and speaking of a copy of Garrison's Liberator, with its horrible pictures of slavery. Turning to Mr. Wade, who sat near him, he said: "Is it not too bad that such a paper should be allowed to exist? Why will not the authorities of the United States suppress such a slanderous sheet? Can it be possible that any patriotic citizen of the North will tolerate such an abomination?" Senator Wade put on his spectacles, and looking at the title of the paper, exclaimed in surprise, "Why, Senator Evans, in Ohio, we consider this one of our best family papers!" The Senators roared; but Mr. Evans, who had a great respect for Mr. Wade, turned sadly away, saying, "I am sorry to hear you say so, Mr. Wade; it shows whither we are drifting."

Notwithstanding Mr. Wade's bitter opposition to the slave power, the southern men always respected and liked him. Mr. Toombs, the Georgia fire-eater, said of him, in the Senate: "My friend from Ohio puts the matter squarely. He is always honest, outspoken and straightforward, and I wish to God the rest of you would imitate him. He speaks out like a man. He says what is the difference, and it is. He means what he says; you don't always. He and I can agree about every thing on earth except our sable population."

There was not a northern demagogue in Congress who would not have given gladly all his ill-gotten reputation to have had such a compliment paid him by a southern Senator as was paid by Mr. Toombs to Senator Wade.

In the debates on the organization of Kansas as a State, Mr. Wade avowed himself a Republican—a Black Republican, if they chose to call him so—and as determined in his opposition

to slavery extension, under all circumstances and at all times. In the course of one of the speeches he made on that question, he made use of the following language:

"Sir, I am no sycophant or worshipper of power anywhere. I know how easy it is for some minds to glide along with the current of popular opinion, where influence, respectability, and all those motives which tend to seduce the human heart are brought to bear. I am not unconscious of the persuasive power exerted by these considerations to drag men along in the current; but I am not at liberty to travel that road. I am not unaware how unpopular on this floor are the sentiments I am about to advocate. I well understand the epithets to which they subject their supporters. Every man who has been in this hall for one hour knows the difference between him who comes here as the defender and supporter of the rights of human nature, and him who comes as the vile sycophant and flatterer of those in power. I know that the one road is easy to travel; the other is hard, and at this time perilous. But, sir, I shall take the path of duty and shall not swerve from it.

"I am amazed at the facility with which some men follow in the wake of slavery. Sometimes it leads me even to hesitate whether I am strictly correct in my idea that all men are born to equal rights, for their conduct seems to me to contravene the doctrine. I see in some men an abjectness, a want of that manly independence which enables a man to rely on himself and face the world on his own principles, that I don't know but that I am wrong in advocating universal liberty. I wish to heaven all such were of the African race."

The brutal and cowardly attack on Hon. Charles Sumner by Preston S. Brooks, in May, 1856, called out all the grand and heroic elements of Mr. Wade's nature. Others might hesitate and fear to enter upon the discussion of the question of slavery, when its advocates resorted to the bludgeon and pistol as their reply to the arguments of the anti-slavery men; but it was not in Ben Wade to falter. On the next day after the outrage he

rose and commenced his speech in denunciation of the atrocious deed, with these memorable words:

"Mr. President, if the hour has arrived in the history of this Republic when its Senators are to be sacrificed and pay the forfeit of their lives for opinions' sake, I know of no fitter place to die than in this chamber, with our Senate robes around us; and here, if necessary, I shall die at my post, and in my place, for the liberty of debate and free discussion."

The southern men writhed, as if in pain, as his scathing words fell hot and heavy upon them, portraying the cowardice, the meanness, the infamy of the deed, and it required a brow of brass to stand up in defence of it, after this severe yet dignified denunciation of the assault.

During the war, Senator Wade was one of the ablest and most untiring members of the Senate. He was chairman of the Committee on Territories, and also of the special Committee on the Conduct of the War, a committee whose services were of the greatest value to the national cause.

Ohio wisely kept him in the Senate for three successive terms, the last of which ended March 4th, 1869. In the beginning of March, 1867, the term of office of Hon. Lafayette S. Foster, President *pro tem.* of the Senate, and acting Vice-President of the United States, having expired, Mr. Wade was elected by the Senate as their presiding officer, a position for which his large experience, thorough political and parliamentary knowledge, and fearless independence, eminently fitted him. During the impeachment trial, he, according to the Constitution, resigned the chair to the Chief Justice of the United States, whose duty it was to preside in such a trial, and it was the understanding that in case of the President's conviction, Mr. Wade would succeed to the presidential chair.

On the 4th of March, 1869, Mr. Wade surrendered his place

as President of the Senate to his successor, Hon. Schuyler Colfax, his kinsman by marriage, and retired with satisfaction to his home in northern Ohio. From that peaceful and quiet home he was called in January, 1871, to be the chairman of a Commission to visit Santo Domingo and ascertain the desires of the people in regard to annexation to the United States, and the advantages and disadvantages of such annexation. The Commission examined the island, very thoroughly, and reported in favor of annexation, but the feeling against it in Congress was so strong that it was given up. Since his return from Santo Domingo Mr. Wade has not taken any part in public affairs.

In person, Mr. Wade is about five feet eight inches in height. stout, and of dark but clear complexion. His eyes are small, jet black and deeply cut, and when roused, they shine like coals of fire. He is slightly stooped, but walks without a cane, and is sprightly and active. His jaws are firm and large, the under one being very strong and compact. The lips are full and round, the upper one doubling, at the corners of his mouth, over the lower one, which gives the Senator a ferocious and savage sort of look; and this it is that causes so many persons to misunderstand the true character of the man, and mistake him for a fierce, hard, cold man, when he is, in reality, one of the warmest, kindest-hearted men in the world. His face is not a handsome one, and if you examine it in detail, you will say he is an ugly man; and yet there is in that face a sort of rough harmony, an honest, bluff, heartiness that makes you like it. There is nothing weak, bad, or treacherous-looking about it; and when he speaks the features light up, and the mobilized countenance gives to the straightforward words such an interest that you no longer remember his homeliness at all. When sitting silent or listening, he has a way of looking at one with his piercing black eyes that at once disconcerts a rascal or dishonest man, and is often

most annoying to the innocent and honest. You feel he is reading you and weighing closely your motives for what you are saying. There is no use in trying to deceive or lie to old Ben. Wade; if he don't find you out and hint at your motives before you leave, rest assured he understands you, and only keeps his belief to himself, because he does not desire to wound your feelings.

We do not think Mr. Wade ever owned such a thing as a finger-ring or breast-pin. He dresses in plain black, and wears a standing-collar of the old style, and is always scrupulously clean. Always talkative and lively when out of his seat, he is silent, grave and thoughtful when in the Senate chamber. Any one who looked at him from the galleries, as he sat daily in the Vice-President's chair, presiding over the deliberations of the highest tribunal in the land, could see in his quiet repose a picture of real strength and dignity such as should characterize the American Senator.

As chairman of the Committee on Territories, he reported the first provision prohibiting slavery in all the territory of the United States to be subsequently acquired; the bill for negro suffrage in the District of Columbia; carried the homestead bill through the Senate; led the Senate in the division of Virginia and the formation of the new State of West Virginia; and secured the admission of Nevada and Colorado into the Union.

On one point only did he differ from Mr. Lincoln, viz.: his proposed reconstruction policy; and the difference was for a time strong and decided; but, in the end, Mr. Lincoln acknowledged that that was the great error of his life, and receded from the measures he had proposed.

HAMILTON FISH

SECRETARY OF STATE.

HAMILTON FISH, the present Secretary of State, is a son of Colonel Nicholas Fish, and a native of the city of New York, where he was born in 1809. He is descended from one of what are called "the old families" of that city, not less on account of their lineage, than from their standing, wealth, and respectability. He was educated at Columbia College, from which he graduated in 1827, with an excellent reputation for ability and attainments. He embraced the profession of law; was admitted an attorney in the Superior Court in 1830, and, three years later was regularly enrolled among the counsellors of that court. As a lawyer, his business was large, and always attended to with a promptness, ability and diligence which would naturally have insured its increase, had not the management of his large estate occupied more of his time than was consistent with the attainment of the highest honors or the lucrative emoluments of the profession. Early in life he manifested a deep interest in politics, and it could scarcely have been otherwise with a young man of his social position and intelligence, when we consider the period of remarkable political activity in which he grew up to man's estate. Although then as now, rather conservative, he was generally associated with those of advanced opinions. In 1834 he was an unsuc-

cessful candidate for the State Assembly; but, was more successful in 1837, and his course in that body afforded entire satisfaction to his party friends; for, while not particularly distinguished in debate, his consistency as a politician, business tact, and ability, gained him a prominent place on the Whig side of the House, and the favorable regard of those with whom he was particularly affiliated.

In 1842 he was elected to represent the Sixth Congressional District (embracing the six upper wards, except the 13th and 14th) over John McKeon (Democrat), by a small majority; which, however, was considered a great triumph, inasmuch as Governor Bouck's (Democrat) majority over Seward (Whig) was about 1200 in the same district. Mr. Fish's success, however, was owing not so much to his personal popularity, as to his well-known approval of the principles and objects of the Native American party, who threw their influence in his favor. He served but one term, was Chairman of the Military Committee, and attained a creditable standing among the prominent Whigs of that day, which paved the way for future political preferment; so that, when he retired again to private life, his friends were unwilling to surrender their claims upon him, and he was nominated as the Whig candidate for Lieutenant-Governor of the State, at the State Convention of 1846, on the same ticket with John Young, which, however, was defeated by the "anti-renters" adoption of the Democratic candidate. The next year, 1847, he was elected Lieutenant-Governor in the place of Mr. Gardiner, who resigned (the opposition failing in consequence of division in the Democratic ranks), and presided over the deliberations of the Senate with dignity and acceptability.

In 1848, Governor Young declined renomination, and Mr. Fish, as Lieutenant Governor, naturally attracted the attention of his party to himself. In spite of the then existing division of the

Whig party into "Conservatives" (afterwards National Whigs), with whom Mr. Fish sympathized, and "Radicals" (or Seward Whigs), he received the nomination for Governor, at the State Convention, on September 14th, with Geo. W. Patterson as Lieutenant-Governor. The Whigs, owing to divisions in the Democratic camp, succeeded, by a plurality vote, and Mr. Fish took the oath of office January 1st, 1849. The position being pretty well stripped of patronage by the Constitution of 1846, the new Governor found no difficulty in preserving that moderate, neutral course of conduct, which became the position, and which was so acceptable to his own tastes, and his administration passed harmoniously, although slavery was bitterly agitating the councils of the State, as well as of the nation. Mr. Fish was early committed to the Wilmot proviso, and in his annual message, took strong grounds against the extension of slave territory. His messages, like all public papers from his hand, are conspicuous for their style and the modesty with which his opinions are stated. Among his recommendations were the institution of a State Agricultural School; of a School for Instruction in the Mechanical Arts; the restoration of the office of County Superintendent of Schools; the revision and alteration of the laws authorizing taxes and assessments for local improvements; a more general and equable tax on personal property; the establishment of tribunals of conciliation, in accordance with provisions of the Constitution of 1846; and a modification of the criminal code.

After his retirement from the gubernatorial chair, he was sent to the United States Senate (in place of Daniel S. Dickinson), where he served from 1852 to 1857. During this time, including as it did the epoch of the Repeal of the Missouri Compromise, he became identified with the present Republican party. After leaving Congress, he spent several years in the enjoyment

of travel in Europe. At the outbreak of the War of Secession he was boldly outspoken for the Union, and participated in the overwhelming demonstration at Union Square, New York, May 20th, 1861, where he made a short but stirring appeal.

In January 1862, he was appointed, together with Bishop Ames of the Methodist Episcopal Church, upon a Commission to relieve the Union prisoners in the Southern prisons, and although they were denied admission to the territory held by Southern arms, they nevertheless succeeded in negotiating a general exchange of prisoners of war. Later in the same year, Mr. Fish wrote a letter, in which he said: "We must conquer peace; we cannot buy it, and if we could, it would be valueless, as it would be disgraceful."

At the close of the war Mr. Fish again went to Europe, but soon after his return was nominated Secretary of State by President Grant, March 1st, 1869, in place of E. B. Washburne, resigned. In the administration of the duties devolving upon this office, which has come to be considered of late years the Premiership of the Cabinet, Mr. Fish's course has not always met the public approval. Like most men of reticent and conservative temper, he possesses a very strong will, and some notions which make him a difficult man to deal with. In his relations with our ministers to foreign courts, and the ministers of other powers to the United States, he has either been unfortunate or perverse. Mr. Motley, a gentleman and scholar of as high social position as Mr. Fish, a historian of whom the nation had a right to be proud, and a diplomatist of very considerable experience, was appointed Minister to the Court of St. James at the commencement of President Grant's administration; but within a year fell under Secretary Fish's displeasure, and after a correspondence, which was not specially creditable to either party, was dismissed. The unseemly quarrel with Mr. Catacazy, the Russian Minister, was not probably Mr. Fish's fault, for the

Russian was not fit for his place; but the disgraceful wrangling over it, and the discourtesy to the son of the European monarch most friendly to us, was not an edifying spectacle.

In his diplomatic intercourse with other powers, notably with Spain, Denmark, and France, Mr. Fish has at times been rash and fretful. While not lacking the ability to handle a constitutional law point as adroitly as any of his predecessors, he has fallen below the generality of them in courteous style of statement. Yankee brusqueness may accord perfectly with our home dispositions, and may even be excused in private character abroad, but diplomatists have grown so used to *suave* methods of speech that a departure for any reason is well nigh inexcusable.

Secretary Fish has come in for a large share of censure in his method of conducting the Alabama claims controversy. But as most of that censure was predicated on the supposed entire failure of the treaty, it has been in a great measure withdrawn since the prospect of the treaty's ratification, in a modified form, has brightened.

We shall not discuss the preliminaries of the treaty, but simply state that the nation expected much from it, not only as a compensation for actual losses, and as a sedative to that rancorous feeling which was distracting two nearly allied countries, but as a harbinger of the era of amicable arbitration wherever national differences existed.

In order to reach the desired end both nations had to concede something. Mr. Fish's position was strongly taken. It accorded with the views of our greatest diplomatists, not even excepting those of his bitterest personal enemy, Mr. Sumner. When England recoiled from it, and took the position that she could not honorably admit our claim for indefinite consequential damages, perhaps Mr. Fish continued to be a little too stiff and exacting. At any rate it was not until a powerful sentiment grew up in

the country against the advisability of adhering to such consequential claims that he showed signs of yielding. When he did yield it was evidently against his better judgment, and with a reluctance that proved a strong attachment to his original position. His conduct thus far only shows that native conviction was with difficulty overborne by considerations of policy, or that concessory spirit which so largely enters into successful diplomacy.

His enemies were, however, not slow to seize this opportunity for first driving home upon him the charge of obstinacy, and afterwards when he yielded, the charge of cowardice, which charge, on the other side of the water, took the shape of disingenuousness and trickery; for though he pressed at first the claims for indirect damages with all his ardor, he privately declared that it was not done with the expectation of recovering upon them. The fact is, he simply took a lawyer-like view of them, and regarded their presentation as necessary to show that some modification of the laws regulating the conduct of neutrals was needed. We cannot think that either cowardice or a desire to act unfairly is an ingredient of Mr. Fish's nature. We must credit him with a strong will and great professional pride, amounting at times, perhaps, to forgetfulness of those little refinements which unavoidably attach themselves to diplomacy, and to abhorrence of those compromises which in every day life are oftener evidences of weakness than strength. Instinctively he is a safe and true counsellor. His slowness may give rise to the impression that he is timid, but surely this is rebutted by that firmness, when his mind is once made up, which has so often thrown him open to the charge of wilfulness and stubbornness.

The *forte* of the diplomatist is tact. That he lacks the shrewdness and smoothness of diction, which have immortalized shallower men, must not go to discredit the integrity of his character the depth of his learning, or the soundness of his judgments.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL.

GEORGE S. BOUTWELL was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, January 28th, 1818. In April, 1820, his parents removed to Lunenburg, where they lived on a farm until 1863, when both died, his mother in March, and his father in July. His mother was of the Marshall family. Mr. Boutwell's father was a man of good abilities, and was twice a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, and a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1853. Mr. Boutwell learned to read at a very early age, standing at his mother's knee, while she read the large family Bible. The result was that he learned to read as the type setters read, "by the word method."

As he grew up he could not remember the time when he could not read. He went to the public school six or seven very brief summer terms, and to perhaps as many private schools, of a few weeks each, and usually kept by the same teacher. He attended winter schools until, and including, his sixteenth birthday. The next winter he taught a school in Shirley, Massachusetts.

At that time he had thoroughly mastered Arithmetic, and learned something of Latin, Algebra, Geometry, Astronomy, Natural Philosophy and History. He studied these branches, in school and out, under most unfavorable circumstances.

When nearly thirteen years old he went into a country store at Lunenburg and remained there four years. In March, 1835, he went to Groton, entering upon the mercantile business and continuing there as clerk or partner for several years. The early facility in reading, gained at his mother's knee, created a taste for study, and an insatiable thirst for knowledge.

In the second story of the store where he served as clerk, there was kept an old, but choice and well selected library. This was a mine of wealth to young Boutwell. In the absence of customers, and so far as fidelity to his employer permitted, he read during the day. But at nine o'clock, when the store closed, he repaired promptly to the library and there read till overcome by drowsiness, when he roused himself by some physical exercise, and continued his reading. When sleep again asserted its claims, he plunged his head in a pail of water, at hand for that purpose, and under that renewed stimulus read on till an unduly late hour of the night. The fact that at this early age, with such meagre school advantages, and while so closely occupied with farm work and clerk service, he had made so large attainments in the studies named, and that he was able to teach school at sixteen, shows his enthusiasm in the work of self-culture, his unusual quickness in learning, and invincible energy in pursuing his studies, in the face of manifold difficulties.

When only eighteen years of age he commenced, systematically, the study of law, and entered his name in an attorney's office, studying at odd times, chiefly nights. At the same time he renewed the study of Latin, under Dr. A. B. Bancroft, and read Virgil, and other Latin authors. While an active member of the Legislature, in the winter of 1842–43, he resumed the study of French under Count Laporte, which he had previously pursued without a teacher, devoting for several months one

half hour a day to this study. For six years his thirst for knowledge almost consumed him. He devoted every moment he could command to study, working till midnight, and often till one, two, or even three o'clock in the morning. This zeal was self-prompted, and without the stimulus of a teacher or any rival companions. This excessive labor injured his health, and in 1841–42, he was obliged to diminish his hours of study. At nineteen he delivered his first public lecture before the Groton Lyceum. In 1840, he entered the political contest in favor of Mr. Van Buren. At the age of twenty-one, he was elected a member of the school committee in Groton, a large town of more than usual wealth and culture. The esteem in which he was held by his fellow-townsmen is also shown by the fact that in the same year he was the candidate of the Democratic party for the Legislature and though defeated the first two years, continued to be their candidate for ten years. He was a member of the legislature in 1842, '43, '44, '47, '48, '49, and '50. He soon became a prominent and influential member, and surpassed all by his thorough mastery of the subjects which he discussed and by his readiness and ability in debate. He successfully advocated the questions of retrenchment of expenses, enlargement of the school fund, and Harvard college reform.

The legislation on these subjects, and especially in reference to Harvard college, was mainly due to his efforts. Between 1842 and 1850, he was Railway Commissioner, Bank Commissioner, Commissioner on Boston Harbor, and a member of special State Committees upon the subject of Insanity, and upon the Public Lands in Maine. In all those years he gave numerous Lyceum lectures, and political addresses. In 1844, '46, and '48, he was the candidate of the Democratic party for Congress.

He was nominated for the office of governor, in 1849–50, and

was elected to that office in 1851, and 1852. In the State Legislature and Constitutional Convention of 1853, he was early recognized as a leader. He was familiar with parliamentary rules, was always in order, never prolix, speaking merely to be heard or without something to say, but always aimed directly at the point, and of course at all times had the ear of the Convention. He united firmness with conciliation and exhibited fairness, tolerance, and courtesy to opponents.

In the Constitutional Convention, Rufus Choate was his leading opponent. Early in the session, Mr. Choate, by a most eloquent speech, had won the admiration of the Convention. The subject was "Town Representation." Mr. Boutwell rose to reply. His apparent temerity in meeting the most brilliant member on the Whig side, quite surprised those who did not know him. But the apprehension of a damaging comparison, or a failure, at once passed away. He enchained the attention of the Convention, and maintained his cause with signal ability. He prepared and reported the Constitution which was submitted to the people and adopted. The same year he became a member of the "State Board of Education." It was a deserved tribute to his clear judgment and substantial education, that Massachusetts, ever proud of her public schools, should call one without collegiate culture to succeed the classical Barnas Sears, and the eloquent and enthusiastic Horace Mann. He was connected with this board ten years, and, as its secretary for five years, acquitted himself with marked ability. His five annual reports, his commentary on the school laws of Massachusetts, and his volume on "Educational Topics and Institutions," rank high in the educational literature of the country. From 1851 to 1860, he was a member of the Board of Overseers of Harvard college. In 1856, he was elected a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; in 1861, a member of the Phi Beta Kappa of Cambridge, and de-

livered the commencement oration. Political subjects, according to usage and obvious propriety, are avoided on such occasions, but in this crisis of the nation, officers of college and of the society called upon the ex-governor to discuss freely the state of the country. His oration, after showing that slavery was the cause of the war, demonstrated the justice and necessity of emancipation. It was in advance of the times, and was severely censured, not only by Democrats but by many Republican leaders and papers. It was published entire in various journals, and circulated widely through the country, and hastened the great revolution of public sentiment on this subject more than any address by any American statesman during the first year of the war.

Immersed in public affairs since his majority, no other man of his age in Massachusetts has been so long and constantly in the public service. No other man living, in that State, has held so many, varied and responsible offices, in each of which his course has been marked by integrity, fidelity, and ability.

To the young his life is a fit example of the cardinal virtues of industry, uprightness, and frugality, of strict temperance, and unwearied perseverance.

Mr. Boutwell is not a politician, but a statesman. In all his history, his faith has been in truth, in right, in justice and principle, and not in art and scheming, in management and chicanery. Fidelity to principle has marked his whole career. He has ever been an earnest and consistent advocate of the rights of man. He left the Democratic party upon the repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854, his last vote with that party being in 1853. He was a leader in the organization of the Republican party in Massachusetts, and was a delegate to the Baltimore Convention, in 1864; was a member of the Peace Congress in 1861; organized the new Department of Internal

Revenue, and served as Commissioner until 1862, when he resigned to take his seat in the Thirty-eighth Congress. He served on the Judiciary Committee, in the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congress, and was one of the managers in the Impeachment case.

He was re-elected to the Forty-first Congress, and took his seat at the First Session, commencing March 4th, 1869, but on the 11th of March he was nominated by President Grant for Secretary of the Treasury, and has held that important and responsible office till the present time (1872.) In the management of the national finances, he has had many difficulties to contend with, both from the interference of others, and the novelty of his position, many of the emergencies he has been called to meet being entirely without precedent. His nature and habit incline him to, perhaps, an excess of caution; and the petty details of his early experience in a country store are not, it may be, the best preparation for the comprehensive sweep and the vast movements of a national treasury, which disburses its four or five hundred millions or more annually. Yet his financial management has been, taken as a whole, a success. He has extinguished three hundred and thirty millions of the public debt; has made a very good beginning in funding the remainder at five per cent. or less; has kept down the price of gold, and when he deemed interference called for, has always interfered for the people and against the speculators.

Mr. Boutwell is a man of judicial mind, instinctive sagacity, strong memory, iron will, indomitable perseverance, great power of mental concentration, and entire self-command. His energies never seem to flag. His fine voice, distinct articulation and deliberate but earnest delivery, make him an impressive speaker. His style is clear and vigorous. He is too earnest to deal in sallies of wit, the play of imagination, or ornaments of rhetoric,

but he is always sincere and impressive. His mind, while full of information, patient in details, and accurate in the minutest point, grasps easily great questions, and tends to broad and rapid generalizations. He has trained himself to "think on his legs." He enjoys debate, excels in forensic contests, and seems always strongest in the closest grapple of mental combat.

GEORGE MAXWELL ROBESON,

SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

GEORGE MAXWELL ROBESON was, until his appointment to the Secretaryship of the Navy, a resident of Camden, New Jersey, where as a lawyer, he had attained eminence, both in professional and social life. He is a son of William P. Robeson, a native of Philadelphia, who was an Associate judge of the Philadelphia county court. He comes from a family that have been long distinguished in both law and politics. His maternal uncle, J. P. Maxwell, and his grandfather, George C. Maxwell, were members of Congress from New Jersey.

Mr. Robeson was born in the town of Belvidere, Warren County, New Jersey, in the year 1829. At an early age he matriculated at Princeton College, and, when under eighteen years of age, graduated with distinguished honors. Subsequently he began the study of law, at Newark, New Jersey, in the office of Chief Justice Hornblower, and although his learning and abilities fitted him to discharge the duties of his profession before he arrived at a legal age, he was obliged to wait that period under the rules of the court, before being admitted to practice.

Commencing his professional duties at Newark, he subsequently removed to Jersey City, where the larger commercial and manufacturing interests and population afforded a wider field for his abilities.

In 1855 Governor Newell appointed Mr. Robeson Prosecutor of the Pleas of Camden county, and he became a resident of Camden, holding his office of public prosecutor until 1860.

Retiring from that office he became a law partner of Alden C. Scovel, Esq., but in the year 1865, when Mr. Theodore F. Frelinghuysen, then Attorney General of New Jersey, was elected Senator, he recommended Mr. Robeson to the vacant Attorney-Generalship, to which position Governor Ward appointed him.

Mr. Robeson has always taken an active part in politics, and was one of the most ardent and able supporters of the war policy of the Government through all our late troubles.

He was a member of the Sanitary Commission, and was from the first associated with the Union League of Philadelphia. In 1862 he was appointed by Governor Olden a Brigadier-General, and commanded a camp of volunteers at Woodbury, New Jersey for the organization of troops. Mr. Robeson is in the prime of life, and is universally esteemed for his abilities and his agreeable social character.

His nomination as Secretary of the Navy, June 25th, 1869, though somewhat surprising, since he had not been known in political circles outside of his own State, was not, on the whole, injudicious. He had had no special training in naval matters, nor any particular acquaintance with marine affairs, but in these matters he was probably as well informed as many of his predecessors, better, perhaps, than some of them; and having spent most of his life in the vicinity of large seaports, he would naturally have been attracted to the interests of both our commercial and national marine.

His administration of the Department has been, in general, very creditable to him. Charges were brought against him by a New York editor of corruption, fraud and malfeasance in office; but on a careful and thorough investigation by a committee of the

House of Representatives, they were proved to have been unfounded, and the only instance in which there was ground for any semblance of blame was in his payment of the Secor (Jersey City) claim, after it had been once decided adversely by Congress and by an official Board of Examination. The claim was not, perhaps, unjust, and it was reasonable that the contractors, if wronged, should have some means of redress; but it was a somewhat dangerous stretch of official authority for the head of a department to order a large payment made to them on his own motion, after it had been adjudicated by the only competent authority that they had been paid in full. It is due to him to say, however, that in this case there was no just imputation in regard to his honesty and integrity, but that his action was only an error of judgment in regard to the scope of his official powers.

Mr. Robeson unquestionably possesses a high order of talent, and may be regarded as one of the ablest administrative officers of the Government.

His genial temper, graceful address and fascinating manners, render him deservedly popular in private life.

GEORGE H. WILLIAMS,

ATTORNEY-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE present Attorney-General of the United States, GEORGE H. WILLIAMS, was born in Columbia county, New York, on the 23d day of March, 1823; received an academical education at an academy in Onondaga county; studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1844. He immediately sought a field for the exercise of his talents in the "Great West," and located in the young and growing State of Iowa. Here he displayed energy, probity, and versatile talents which attracted attention, and resulted, not only in a flattering professional business, but in the honor of being elected, in 1847, Judge of the First Judicial District of that State, a position which he occupied, with credit to himself and to the general satisfaction of the public, until 1852. In that year he was a presidential elector from Iowa, and received, in 1853, from President Pierce, the appointment of Chief Justice of the then Territory of Oregon, to which he was again reappointed in 1857, by President Buchanan, but resigned. He was elected a member of the State Constitutional Convention of Oregon in 1858; and in 1865 took his seat in the United States Senate, as a Union Republican, from that State (succeeding B. F. Harding, Union Republican), his term expiring March 4th, 1871.

His course on the bench and as Senator was characterized by sound judgment, fine legal abilities, and unquestioned honesty

of principle and purpose. In Congress he served on many important committees, such as the Standing Committee on Claims, Private Land Claims, Finance, and the Special Committees on the Rebellious States and Reconstruction, Expenses of Senate, and the National Committee to accompany the remains of the martyred Lincoln from Washington to his home in Illinois.

His remarkable legal attainments, and especially his profound knowledge of constitutional and international law made his name prominent for the position of Attorney-General when Judge Hoar resigned, but the President for some cause selected Judge Akerman of Georgia, who in turn resigned in January, 1872, when Judge Williams was tendered the office and accepted it. The Attorney-General's office can boast of many eminent names, men like Reverdy Johnson, Judge Black, William M. Evarts, and others, who brought to it the lustre of great reputations, but it has been filled by no jurist of higher ability or more spotless reputation than the present incumbent.

JACOB DOLSON COX.

IT has always seemed to us that Plutarch was guilty of holding up to undeserved scorn, that Athenian citizen whom he represents as having applied to Aristides to inscribe on his shell his own name, that he might vote to banish that eminently just magistrate. Plutarch says that the judge asked him if he knew anything against Aristides. "No," he replied; "but he was tired with hearing everyone call him the Just." The man was not so far out of the way, after all. Aristides was undoubtedly an upright and just ruler, but he lacked sympathy with humanity, and that personal attraction or magnetism which made many worse men more popular and better loved than he, and the poor fellow who wanted him banished, really revolted not against his being called the "Just," but at his not being also the "merciful" and the sympathizing magistrate.

Something of this same feeling has always prevented General Cox from being a popular idol. He is eminently a correct, just, upright man; he is a fine scholar, accomplished in all directions; he was a good though not a great soldier, always safe but never daring; he had the respect of his troops, though not their love; he was an able and judicious legislator; he made a good record as Governor, though he was never popular. His administration of the Department of the Interior was skilful and successful, but he made no friends, and when he withdrew on the alleged ground that he could not be a party to corrupt and fraudulent disposi-

tion of the public lands, his protest, though admirably written, was so cold and formal that it carried very little weight with it He was "the just," undoubtedly, but people had become weary of a justice which lacked soul, which had no sympathies with the living, throbbing, and oft-times sinning heart of humanity.

The Germans have a legend that the Frost King found one night that a daring traveller had invaded his dominions. Though very angry, he did not, as he might have done, destroy the intruder; he only touched his breast with his icy finger, and thenceforward the man wherever he went bore a frozen heart in his bosom. We incline to the belief that this man with the frozen heart had a numerous progeny. But to our biographical sketch.

Jacob Dolson Cox was born in Montreal, Canada, October 27th, 1828, during the temporary residence of his parents (who were citizens of New York) in that city. His mother was a lineal descendant of Elder William Brewster of the Mayflower. He removed to Ohio in 1846, graduated from Oberlin College in 1851, and commenced the practice of the law at Warren, Ohio, in 1852. Not long after he married a daughter of Rev. Charles G. Finney, D.D., the eloquent and able president of Oberlin College.

A man of scholarly habits, Mr. Cox soon distinguished himself by his attainments in literature, history, philosophy and military and political science. He was withal a well read and very able lawyer, a fine horseman, a good fencer, and for a militia officer, remarkable for his knowledge of the practice as well as the theory of military manœuvres. He had been commissioned Brigadier-General in the Ohio militia before he had attained his thirtieth year, and was so able a politician as to be sent to the Ohio Senate from the Trumbull and Mahoning District in 1859. Here he and James A. Garfield, one of the lead-

ing members of the last three Congresses, and himself subsequently a general of Volunteers, were reckoned the leaders of the Radical wing of Ohio Republicans.

When the President's proclamation of April 15th, 1861, was received, Senator Cox entered with a great deal of spirit into the work of organizing the Ohio contingent, and was at once commissioned, by Governor Dennison, Brigadier-General of Ohio Volunteers, that he might do this work more effectually. He organized and prepared the Ohio troops for the field at Camp Dennison, and reënlisted most of them as three years regiments.

About the 1st of July General Cox was commissioned, by President Lincoln, Brigadier-General of Volunteers, ante-dating from May 15th, 1861, and soon after was called into the field. We have not space to go over his war record in any great detail; but as we follow him through the campaign in Western Virginia under McClellan and Rosecrans, now advancing and accomplishing what he had been directed to do, carefully and well; now compelled to fall back by the greatly superior force of the enemy; but always doing so, in good order and without serious loss; as we review his movements under Fremont's unfortunate campaign in the Shenandoah, his subsequent connection with the Army of Virginia, just as it was merged in the Army of the Potomac, his bravery and good conduct at South Mountain, at Antietam, and subsequently in his old command of West Virginia, we find him always cautious, always discreet and safe, but never bold, daring, or dashing; always commanding the respect of his men, never winning their admiration by his fearlessness; never gaining their warm love by his personal magnetism. In the spring of 1863, he was ordered back to Ohio, and commanded the District of Ohio under General Burnside. In December he took part in the defence of Knoxville, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded the Third Division of the Twenty-

third Corps, or as it was oftenest called "the Army of the Ohio."

He had been nominated as Major-General of Volunteers by President Lincoln, in the winter of 1862–3, but dropped before confirmation, through no fault of his own, but because, through a misunderstanding, the President had nominated too many. He went through the Atlanta campaign with great credit, though still only a Brigadier, never originating a measure, but obeying orders silently, firmly and effectively ; had returned to Nashville with Thomas and Schofield in pursuit of Hood, and had a conspicuous and honorable part in the fierce battle of Franklin; and one as creditable though less bloody in the crowning two days' fight at Nashville, and the subsequent pursuit of Hood. On the strong recommendation of Generals Sherman and Schofield he was commissioned a Major-General, to rank from December 7th, 1864. Transferred with General Schofield to the Atlantic coast, he took an honorable part in the battles about Wilmington and Kinston, North Carolina, and effected a junction with General Sherman at Goldsboro.

He had charge of the mustering out of the Ohio troops till near the close of the year, when having been elected Governor of Ohio, he resigned his military to accept his civil office.

He had the reputation of a prudent, skilful and safe military commander, as well as his literary, professional and scientific attainments to serve as capital for his candidacy for the office of Governor; but he had well-nigh defeated himself by that cold heart of his. Some of his old Oberlin friends addressed certain inquiries to him relative to the status of the African, and the then vexed question of negro suffrage. He had been reared and educated an Abolitionist, had been trained in an Anti-slavery College, had married the daughter of one of the most fearless anti-slavery men of our time; he had represented in the Ohio

Senate the strongest Anti-slavery district in Ohio, and there had distinguished himself as a Radical of the Radicals, and in the army had always been sternly just as the defender of the African against his numerous foes. Yet now, when all Ohio was ablaze with a feeling of sympathy for the down-trodden race, and a desire to lift them up, he coldly expressed in his reply his belief that the nation would not tolerate negro suffrage, and that, probably, the best thing which could be done for the race would be to deport them to Africa or Hayti, and colonize the whole three or four millions. This letter greatly reduced the Republican majority in the State, and caused him to run considerably behind the rest of the ticket.

Soon after his inauguration he did another foolish thing. He espoused the cause of Andrew Johnson, advocated some of his worst acts, and addressed an urgent and well-written letter to the Ohio Senators and Representatives in Congress to bring them over to his views. Mr. Johnson before long went so far that the cautious Governor was unwilling to follow; but the whilom radical had become intensely conservative. He declined a renomination, which would have been an inevitable defeat, and returned to the practice of his profession at Cincinnati, where he was soon in the enjoyment of a large and lucrative business.

On General Grant's election to the Presidency, he called ex-Governor Cox to the Cabinet as Secretary of the Interior. The appointment was not a bad one, for he was fully competent for its duties, and might have made that department much better in every respect than it ever had been. But his evil genius again prevailed. He was not in sympathy with the other members of the Cabinet, and perhaps not with his chief, and his rulings very soon began to conflict with those of the other secretaries. A California mining claim relating to a great quicksilver deposit had been in litigation before the Government for twelve or fifteen

years, and after the most careful examination by the law officer of the Government and the Committee on Claims of Congress, had been decided. To their ruling Secretary Cox took exception, and proposed to reverse it. Finding this impossible, he addressed a caustic letter to the President, denouncing the fraud and corruption which he said was rife in the Government, and resigned his office, November 1, 1870. The occasion for this diatribe was one where he was so evidently in the wrong that his resignation lost much of the force and dignity which might otherwise have pertained to it. He returned to Cincinnati and resumed his practice. At the "Liberal Republican" National Convention held at Cincinnati, May 3d and 4th, 1872, ex-Secretary Cox was a member, and received some votes for the Presidential nomination. He was very active in his advocacy of the free-trade doctrines, and, we believe, thus far refuses to support the nominees of that convention.

SIMON CAMERON.

SIMON CAMERON, born in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, March 8th, 1799, was left an orphan at the age of nine years, and acquired his education by a diligent improvement of all the facilities which he could secure, while an apprentice in a newspaper and printing office. As such he worked at "the case" in Harrisburg, Pa., and at Washington, D. C., finally striking out on his own account as editor of the *Pennsylvania Intelligencer*, at Doylestown, Pa. In 1822 he became the publisher and editor of a newspaper at Harrisburg, which strongly advocated the claims of General Jackson for the Presidency. In 1832 he was President of the Middletown Bank, which he had established; and of two Railroad Companies, as well as holding the responsible position of Adjutant-General of the State. In 1845 he was elected United States Senator from Pennsylvania, and served until 1849; and in 1851 was re-elected for the term ending in 1863, voting in that body, amongst other things, for Douglas' proposition to extend the Missouri Compromise line to the Pacific. After the repeal of that Compromise, in 1854, and the attempt to force slavery on the people of Kansas, he identified himself with the "People's Party" in Pennsylvania; in 1856 voted for Fremont for the Presidency; and in the Chicago Convention of 1860, was spoken of as a candidate for the same high office, having the third place on the first ballot after which his name was withdrawn.

President Lincoln, on his accession to office, March 4th, 1861, nominated Mr. Cameron for Secretary of War, and he resigned his seat in the United States Senate to accept the place in the Cabinet. The condition of the Department of War at the time when he took charge of it, is thus briefly but graphically described by him: "Upon my appointment to the position, I found the department destitute of all means of defence, without guns and with literally no prospect of purchasing the *material* of war. I found the nation without any army, and there was scarcely a man throughout the whole War Department in whom I could put any trust. The Adjutant-General deserted; the Quartermaster-General ran off; the Commissary-General was on his death-bed; more than half the clerks were disloyal."

This condition of things, in a capital menaced by a well or ganized rebel army without, and by hordes of traitorous officials and spies within, was truly appalling; but Mr. Cameron possessed nerve and loyalty, and was nobly seconded by the loyalty of the Northern States. All that man could do, he did; and shared, with his great Chief, the awful burden of anxiety which accompanied those earlier months of the war for the suppression of the rebellion. He made strenuous efforts to secure the countermanding of the order for battle, which resulted so disastrously in the failure in the first Bull Run fight, in which he lost a brother, Colonel James Cameron, who was killed while leading a charge of the New York 79th (Highlanders) regiment.

In his Annual Report to the President, of the operations of his department, December 1st, 1861, he spoke boldly and at considerable length of the policy (to which he had become a convert) of recognizing slavery as the Union's real assailant, and fighting her accordingly. This portion of the Secretary's report was stricken out by President Lincoln (who had not, at that time, reached this point, to which he was afterwards forced by

the necessity of events), and a more moderate and briefer allusion to the subject was substituted therefor.

After ten months of anxious and unfaltering attention to the weighty duties devolved upon him, Mr. Cameron, whose health was seriously impaired, resigned, January 13th, 1862, and was succeeded as Secretary of War by the late Edwin M. Stanton. He was then sent as Minister to St. Petersburgh, but soon returned, arriving in the United States in November, 1862. In 1864, he was a delegate to the Baltimore Convention, as well as to that of the "Loyalists" at Philadelphia in 1866, and in January, 1867, again took his seat in the United States Senate from Pennsylvania, as a Union Republican (succeeding Edgar Cowan, Democrat) for the term ending 3d of March, 1873. In February, 1871, he succeeded Mr. Sumner as Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs; and has served conspicuously on the Committees on Military Affairs, Ordnance, etc.

Mr. Cameron has great experience in political affairs, and possesses executive ability of a high order. He has for many years past ruled his party in Pennsylvania, sometimes, as in the late nomination for Governor, carrying matters with a very high hand, and securing the nomination of men personally distasteful to a considerable portion of the party, but by thorough discipline he has usually succeeded in securing their election. Sometimes he has carried this imperialism a little too far, and has defeated the objects he desired to accomplish.

An active business life and great skill in financial movements have resulted in accumulating for Mr. Cameron a very large fortune, and his influential connection with the great railroad and mining corporations has enabled him to exert more political power than he could otherwise have done. For years rumors of his contion with jobs and corruption have been rife, and the numerous "jobs" which were perfected during his service in President

Lincoln's Cabinet were adduced as evidence of the truth of these rumors. In any great national disaster or struggle, the cormorants are sure to gather and seize on their prey, and Secretary Cameron's rather loose notions on this subject made him less careful than he should have been, and undoubtedly led in part to his resignation. That he was a partner in or personally cognizant of these frauds, is wholly improbable, but he had not that quick eye to detect fraudulent intention in others, nor that stern and inflexible determination to punish it, which was so grand a characteristic of Secretary Stanton.

Since the war, whether in public or private life, save for the domineering spirit to which we have alluded, Mr. Cameron's course has been without reproach, and in his position as Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, his fine abilities and his large knowledge of our relations to the European Governments, have made him an able successor to Senator Sumner, if the change was needful. We need not say that Senator Cameron is a staunch supporter of President Grant.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

THIS eminent diplomatist comes of an illustrious lineage. The only son of John Quincy Adams, sixth President of the Republic, who survived his father, and the grandson of John Adams, the second President of the United States, he inherits patriotic sentiments, and has done honor, in his public career, to some of the noblest names in our nation's past history.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS was born in Boston, Massachusetts, August 18, 1807. At the age of two years, he was taken by his father to St. Petersburg, where he remained for the next six years, his father being United States Minister at the Russian Court. During his residence at the Russian capital, he learned to speak the Russian, German and French, as well as the English. In February, 1815, he made the perilous journey from St. Petersburg to Paris, with his mother, in a private carriage, to meet his father. The intrepidity of Mrs. Adams, in undertaking such a journey in midwinter, and when all Europe was in a state of commotion, gave evidence that the courage and daring which her son inherited, were not all due to the father's side.

John Quincy Adams was next appointed Minister to England, and during his residence there, he placed Charles at a boarding school, where, in accordance with the brutal practices in vogue in the English schools, he was obliged to fight his English

schoolfellows in defence of the honor of America. But, young as he was, he was too plucky to be beaten, and maintained his country's cause with as much valor, though probably with less intelligence, than he has since been called to exercise in its behalf.

In 1817, his father was recalled to America, to become Secretary of State in President Monroe's administration, and young Adams, on his return, was placed in the Boston Latin school, from whence he entered Harvard College, in 1821, and graduated there with honor in 1825. His father was at this time President, and the son spent the next two years in Washington; but, in 1827, returned to Massachusetts, and commenced the study of the law in the office of Daniel Webster. He was admitted to the bar in 1828, but did not engage actively in practice.

In 1829, Mr. Adams married a daughter of Peter C. Brooks, an opulent merchant of Boston, another of whose daughters was the wife of Hon. Edward Everett. The first years of Mr. Adams' manhood were mostly passed with his books, and in literary and scientific pursuits. Though strongly averse to partizan politics and the petty squabbles for office and plunder, which then occupied the minds of the politicians of the day, it was impossible that, with his birthright and broad culture, he should not devote a considerable part of his studies to political science and statesmanship. He wrote able articles on topics involving a large knowledge of both, in the *North American Review*, and other periodicals, between 1830 and 1845. He also edited at this time the letters of Mrs. John Adams, and gathered the documents for the "Life and Works of John Adams, second President of the United States." He was nominated, in 1840, as Representative in the Massachusetts Legislature; but he had no political aspirations, and declined to be a candidate. At his father's

request, however, he consented to be a candidate the next year, and was elected for three years successively, and was then chosen State Senator for two years. This period (1841–1846) was one of violent struggle, and eventually of disruption between the two wings of the Whig party, the time-serving or "Cotton Whigs," and the "Conscience Whigs," who subsequently, with large additions from the Democracy, formed the Republican party. Of the "Conscience Whigs," Mr. Adams was the acknowledged leader. Some of his reports, and his "Review of the Proceedings of the Legislature of 1843," were very remarkable for their breadth of view, their enunciation of great principles of statesmanship, and their clear and vigorous style. While he was a member of the Senate, the State of Massachusetts sent Judge Hoar to South Carolina, to endeavor, by peaceful measures, to put an end to the imprisonment of colored sailors from Massachusetts in South Carolinian jails, whenever they entered any of the ports of that state. Judge Hoar was treated with great indignity, and driven from the State by a mob. The Massachusetts Legislature hereupon appointed a joint committee, of which Mr. Adams was chairman, to draw up a "Declaration and Protest," to be forwarded to the President and the Governors of the respective States. This paper, prepared by Mr. Adams, is a document worthy of its occasion and its author, a masterly exposition of the legal and Constitutional aspects of the question, and a model of weighty and impressive eloquence. The opposition in Massachusetts, as well as in other Northern States, to the admission of Texas into the Union as a slave State, found a voice and a leader in Mr. Adams. In the winter of 1846, a committee, of which he was chairman, maintained a campaign paper called *The Free State Rally*, and sent on to Washington, from Massachusetts alone, remonstrances with nearly sixty thousand signatures, against the admission of

Texas as a slave State. This act in reality severed the connection between Mr. Adams and the Cotton Whigs, and, late in 1846, he founded and conducted politically for some months, a daily paper called the *Boston Whig*. The "Conscience Whigs" were bitterly maligned and abused by the pro-slavery men of the party, and the severance of the slight bonds which held the two together was beginning to be felt as a necessity. In the measures which resulted somewhat later, in the formation of the Free Soil Party, the *Boston Whig* did good service. The State Whig Convention of September, 1847, was the last in which Mr. Adams, Mr. Sumner, Judge Allen and other Conscience Whigs, attempted to take part in any so-called Whig Convention. The Free Soil party was organized in most of the Northern States in the spring of 1848, and in the summer of that year its Convention at Buffalo nominated Martin Van Buren for President, and Charles Francis Adams for Vice-President. The vote for these candidates was a protest, and a vigorous one, against Pro-Slavery aggression; it could be nothing more. In the five or six years which followed, there was a complete break-up of the Whig party, and the Free Soil party was in part swallowed up in the temporary but short-lived success of the "American" or "Know-Nothing" organization, but soon emerged in the "Republican party," which took shape and form early in 1855.

During the chaotic condition of parties, Mr. Adams had stood aloof from politics, sickened with the corruption of many of the party leaders, yet powerless, for the time, to check it, and it was not till the emergence of the new and purer party from the seething mass, that he again mingled in political circles. Meantime, he had devoted himself with great assiduity to the memoir of his grandfather and the careful editing of his works. This valuable contribution to the early history of our country is

written with that elegant scholarship which marks all Mr. Adams' compositions, and is remarkably impartial in its details of the life of the venerable President. It occupies ten volumes. In the autumn of 1858, Mr. Adams was called from his literary pursuits to represent his district in Congress. His course there, on the eve of the rebellion, was worthy of the great name he bore and of his own previous history. Calm, dignified, yet tenacious in his adherence to the great principles of right, he was such a representative as it became Massachusetts to have at such a time. In the summer and autumn of 1860, he took part in the Presidential canvass, supporting Mr. Lincoln in many able speeches, in the Northwestern States. That he supported, both in committee and in his place in the House, the resolutions disavowing, on the part of the free States, any right, under the Constitution, to interfere with Slavery in States where it was already established, or to hinder by law the reclamation of fugitives, and the bill for the admission of New Mexico as a State, leaving its citizens at liberty in respect to a constitutional admission or prohibition of Slavery, is not to be denied. Looking at these questions in the light of the present, it seems astonishing that he could have made even such concessions as these to the Slave power; but that was the hour of darkness, and many Republicans, who afterwards stood up boldly for freedom, went much farther than Mr. Adams in their concessions at this time. Mr. Adams, unlike most of these, made these propositions his ultimatum, declaring war preferable, with all its horrors, to any further attempts at conciliation. But the Southern leaders were mad upon their idols; they would hear nothing of compromise, and in heart, if not in word, assented to Jefferson Davis's declaration, "That if the North would give him *carte blanche* to make such propositions as he would be satisfied with, he would reject the offer." So, happily and well for the North, all these offers

of conciliation failed of success, and the war commenced. Mr. Adams was re-elected to the Thirty-seventh Congress; but, in the spring of 1861, Mr. Lincoln nominated him as minister to England, and he was promptly confirmed by the Senate, and in the first week of May he sailed from Boston to enter on his duties. He was now in the sphere for the exercise and manifestation of his rare qualities. They were illustrated by the great discouragements which he had to encounter. The armed rebellion had broken out. The ministry and the ruling classes of England were unfriendly. The Tory party could not but welcome the prospect of a downfall of the great republic, whose prosperity had so potently backed up the argument of English friends to free principles and free institutions. The Whig aristocracy, alarmed by the progressive radicalism of their own allies at home, were not unwilling that it should receive a check from the failure of the American experiment. Except the great names of the Duke of Argyll, Mr. Bright and Mr. Cobden, there were few in the first rank of English statesmen who looked favorably or justly on the rights or the prospects of this country. In the commercial circles in which, since the squirarchy has become more enlightened, the intensest burliness of John Bullism resides, the ruin of the great maritime power across the water was a welcome conclusion. The suffering that would fall on the laboring classes in consequence of the stoppage of the supply of cotton from America was apparent, and the decision with which, as it proved, they not only refrained from pressing their government into hostile measures, but pronounced their advocacy of that cause of freedom in America which they instinctively felt to be their own, showed a sense and magnanimity which it would have seemed visionary to look for. The clergy, from Cornwall to the Tweed, rejoiced in the new demonstration that social order was only to be had under the shadow of a church-sustain-

ing throne. The Carlton Club was elate. The Reform Club was bewildered and double-minded. Lord Palmerston, even beyond his wont, was flippant and cheerful.

Mr. Adams stepped into the circle collected, prepared, grave, dignified, self-poised, with the port of one who felt that he had great rights to secure, that he knew how to vindicate them, and that he had a stout power behind him for their maintenance. The British ministry—not over-reluctant themselves—were pressed by solicitations from across the Channel, as well as by taunts and importunities at home, to espouse the cause of the insurgent States. Had they done so, it will not do to say that we should have failed to come victorious out of the contest, but without doubt we should have won our victory at immeasurably greater cost. That they were held to a neutrality, however imperfect, instead of proceeding to an active intervention, was largely due to the admirable temper and ability with which our diplomacy was conducted. A short time sufficed to make it appear that Mr. Adams was not to be bullied, or cajoled, or hoodwinked, or irritated into an imprudence, and every day of his long residence near the British court brought its confirmation to that profitable lesson. Under provocations and assumptions the more offensive for being sheathed in soft diplomatic phrase, not a petulant word was to be had from the American minister, nor a word, on the other hand, indicative of a want of proud confidence in the claims and in the future of his country. A timid and yielding temper would have invited encroachments: a testy humor or discourteous address would have been seized upon as excuse for reserve or counter-irritation. Nor by the preparation of study was he less equal to the difficult occasion than by native qualities of mind and character, as was proved more than once when, Lord John having flattered himself that he had discovered some chink in our mail in some passage of our treat-

ment of Spain and the South American republics, the pert diplomatist had to learn that it would be prudent for him to go into a more careful reading of the records of past American administrations. It is of less consequence to say that Mr. Adams' personal accomplishments, his familiarity with the usages of elegant society, his cultivated taste in art, his profound scholarship, and his acquaintance with the classical historians, orators and poets (a sort of attainment nowhere more considered than in England), added to the estimation which attached to him. Going to that country in circumstances of the extremest perplexity and trial, he left it, after seven years, the object of universal respect, and of an extent and earnestness of private regard seldom accorded, in any circumstances, to the representative of a foreign power. To maintain at once an inflexible and an inoffensive attitude, to assert, without a jot or tittle of abatement, a country's unconceded right, yet expose no coign of vantage to the aggressor by a rash advance, to enforce justice and tranquillize passion at the same time, is the consummate achievement, the last crowning grace, of diplomacy.

After Mr. Adams was recalled from England at his own request, as in former years, he lived in Boston in the winter, and in the summer months managed his extensive farm at Quincy, eight miles from town, where he occupied the ancient house which John Adams, attached to it by early recollections, purchased before his return from Europe in 1788. In a secure building which he lately erected on the estate, Mr. Adams arranged the voluminous manuscripts left by his grandfather and his father, and the large library of Mr. John Quincy Adams. It is understood that he has been occupied in preparing for publication, a selection from the writings of his illustrious father. In December, 1870, he came from his retirement to pronounce, before the New York Historical Society, a discourse, which has

since been published, containing a masterly exposition of the debt of the world to the American government for its persistent maintenance, from first to last, of the doctrine of the right of a nation to preserve its own neutrality; in other words, the right of a nation to remain in peace when other nations go to war—a doctrine laid down by Mr. Wheaton as "incontestable," but which, in fact, was never valid, from the beginning of time till this new people asserted and established it.

In the summer of 1871, he was nominated by the President as the American Commissioner in the arbitration provided for by the Treaty of Washington, ratified in July, and has twice visited Geneva and Paris on that mission. No appointment could have been so fitting and appropriate.

Mr. Adams' name has often been mentioned in connection with the Presidency. We do not believe he desires it, and he is too eminent a statesman and too much of a gentleman and scholar, to be likely to be elected in a republic where mediocrity of talent and ability is preferred to genius, and a certain boorishness of manner is a surer passport to high political honors than refinement and culture. He has mingled but little in political matters since his return from England in 1868, but that he has his own decided opinions on the questions of the day, will be evident from the following letters. The first was written in reply to an invitation to visit Pittsburgh, and take part in the commemoration of Andrew Jackson's birthday:

"BOSTON, *Jan.* 6, 1871.

"*Malcolm Hay, Esq., Secretary of the Committee:*

"DEAR SIR: By some accidental delay your letter of the 31st ultimo, reached me only this morning. I feel much honored in receiving the invitation to visit you at Pittsburgh. My engagements at home, however, prevent me from moving at this time

"Neither am I much in the way of expressing sentiments on present political topics. The country has passed through a violent convulsion, and is now slowly, but steadily, recovering itself. The main object should be to restore harmony and inspire mutual confidence among all the jarring members. Our government draws its life from the ready consent of the governed.

"When the distinguished hero, whose name your association bears, uttered those memorable words: 'The Union shall be preserved!' he undoubtedly rested his faith upon the spontaneous co-operation of the great mass of the nation, responding to his call in the regular and legitimate channels prescribed by the organic law. He never contemplated the use of bayonets in controlling the forms of collecting the general suffrage.

"Our safety as a nation, lies in going back to the first principles, and forgetting that force has ever been resorted to as a painful necessity to preserve them. What was a bitter medicine should not be turned into daily food.

"Very truly yours,

"CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS."

The second letter was one addressed to Hon. David A. Wells, in reply to a request that he would become a candidate for nomination at the Cincinnati Convention:

"BOSTON, *April* 18, 1872.

"MY DEAR MR. WELLS: I have received your letter, and will answer it frankly. I do not want the nomination, and could only be induced to consider it by the circumstances under which it might possibly be made. If the call upon me were an unequivocal one, based upon confidence in my character, earned in public life, and a belief that I would carry out in practice the principles which I professed, then indeed would come a test of my courage in an emergency; but if I am to be negotiated for, and have assurances given that I am honest, you will be so kind as to draw me out of that crowd. With regard to what I understand to be the declaration of principles, which has been

made, it would seem ridiculous in me to stand haggling over them. With a single exception of ambiguity, I see nothing which any honest Republican or Democrat would not accept. Indeed, I should wonder at any one who denied them. The difficulty is not in the professions. It lies everywhere only in the manner in which they are carried into practice. If I have succeeded in making myself understood, you will perceive that I can give no authority to any one to act or to speak for me in the premises. I never had a moment's belief that, when it came to the point, any one so entirely isolated as I am from all political associations of any kind, could be made acceptable as a candidate for public office; but I am so unlucky as to value that independence more highly than the elevation which is bought by a sacrifice of it. This is not inconsistent with the sense of grateful recognition of the many flattering estimates made of my services in many and high quarters; but I cannot consent to peddle with them for power. If the good people who meet at Cincinnati really believe that they need such an anomalous being as I am (which I do not), they must express it in a manner to convince me of it, or all their labor will be thrown away. I am, with great respect, yours, etc.,

"CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

"DAVID A. WELLS, Esq., Norwich, Conn."

At that Convention, held May 2d and 3d, 1872, Mr. Adams received 324 votes out of 715, being within 8 votes, on the original declaration of the sixth ballot, of Mr. Greeley, the successful candidate.

In person, Mr. Adams is rather below than above the middle height. His figure, as he advances in life, tends somewhat to fullness, as did those of his father and grandfather. His head and features, worthily represented in the fine portrait by Hunt, are strongly marked with the family likeness, and express the vigor, decision and repose of his mind and character.

REVERDY JOHNSON.

REVERDY JOHNSON was born in Annapolis, Maryland, on the 21st of May, 1796. He was the son of the Hon. John Johnson, who was the chief judge of the first judicial district of Maryland from 1811 until 1821, when he was appointed chancellor of the State of Maryland.

Reverdy Johnson studied law with his father, and entered upon practice in Prince George's county, and in the city of Annapolis, in his native State. While pursuing his profession, he was engaged in reporting the decisions of the Court of Appeals of Maryland, having prepared the greater part of the well-known series of seven volumes of Harris and Johnson's Reports, which extended to some time in the year 1826.

While pursuing this employment, and engaging in the active practice of his profession, he was appointed a deputy attorney-general of Maryland.

In 1817, he removed to the city of Baltimore. In 1820, he was appointed chief commissioner of insolvent debtors. He held this office until 1821, when he was elected to the Senate of Maryland. In this body he served for two years, and was re-elected, and served nearly two years longer as a State Senator. He then resigned the office, in order to devote himself to a rapidly increasing practice, which he pursued until 1845, with distinguished ability and success, reaching, by general consent, the leadership of the Maryland bar.

In 1845, he was elected a Senator in Congress. He retained this position until 1849, when he resigned it to accept the office of Attorney-General of the United States, tendered him by President Taylor. Upon the death of that President, he retired from office, and continued to practice in the Supreme Court of the United States, in which he had established a great and well-deserved reputation as a jurist. He was obliged, by the exigency of the times, and by his own disposition to use every effort to restore tranquillity to the country, to re-enter political life in 1861. In that year he was a delegate to the Peace Congress. In 1862 he was elected, by the Legislature of Maryland, a Senator in Congress for the term commencing in 1863 and ending March 4th, 1869.

His distinguished services in the Senate, during the period of the rebellion, and his masterly and vigorous efforts to maintain the supremacy of the Constitution and the laws during the progress of the rebellion, and after its termination, are well known to the whole country.

During the term of President Lincoln, he was sent to New Orleans, for the purpose of adjusting grave questions which had arisen with foreign governments, by reason of the alleged undue exercise of military and civil authority, by the general then commanding in Louisiana. His action in restraining and correcting the abuses, which he had been requested to remedy, was fully approved of by the Government at Washington.

Since the close of the rebellion, Mr. Johnson has, with signal ability, manifested his devotion to the Constitution of the United States. He has uniformly insisted that this instrument was as binding upon ourselves as upon those who sought to violate it in 1861. His selection as a member of the joint select committee on reconstruction was most judicious, for no member of

the Senate was more thoroughly informed on the subject, or more impartial.

The debates in the Senate bear testimony to the earnest zeal with which he has endeavored to confine all parties and sections of the country within the boundaries of constitutional law. In so doing, he has not ministered to the prejudices or hostilities of any political organization, in order to win popularity or promote his personal ambition. He has steadily disregarded the dictates of popular clamor and popular passion, and has been content to pursue that course which will secure to him the approbation of all good men and the applause of posterity. His political action has been so calm and impartial as to be wholly judicial in character. This quality of mind, singularly displayed through his senatorial career, was never more distinctly marked than during the trial of the President before the Senate.

In May, 1868, President Johnson nominated him for minister to the court of St. James, as successor to Hon. Charles Francis Adams, and he was confirmed by unanimous vote of the Senate. In the ensuing autumn Mr. Johnson negotiated a treaty with the British Government covering the Alabama Claims, the Northwestern boundary controversy, etc. This treaty was laid before the Senate in February 1869, and after discussion rejected, only one or two votes being recorded in its favor. In April, 1869, Mr. Johnson was recalled, and John Lothrop Motley, the historian, appointed his successor. Since his return to the United States he has devoted himself to his profession, of which he is esteemed one of the ablest members. He was consulted in reference to the Washington Treaty of 1871, and approved of its provisions. Notwithstanding his advanced age, neither mind nor body seems to have lost any portion of its vigor, and so far as we can judge, he may rival the English statesmen and jurists in maintaining his position up to his ninetieth year.

CALEB CUSHING.

CALEB CUSHING, eminent as an orator, jurist and politician, was born at Salisbury, Mass., January 17th, 1800, being the son of Captain John N. Cushing, an enterprising ship-owner of that town, and descended from an old colonial family largely represented in official positions of trust. Fitting for college at the public schools of his native town, he graduated from Harvard College, in 1817, when he gave the salutatory oration; and was a student of Cambridge law-school in 1818. In 1819, he delivered the annual poem before the Phi Beta Kappa Society; and, as candidate for the degree of A. M., pronounced an oration on the durability of the Federal Union. He was also appointed tutor in mathematics and natural philosophy at Harvard, which position he held until July, 1821, signalizing his resignation with a truly eloquent farewell address, strongly indicative of his own ambitious temperament. The addresses which he delivered before debating clubs, etc., at this time, show him to have been strongly impressed with the political grandeur of the Federal Union, and with intense devotion to its highest aims and welfare. In 1822 he was admitted to the Essex bar, and, in 1825, his political career began by his election as representative to the State Legislature from Newburyport, where he had commenced the practice of his profession. In the next year he was seated in the State Senate; published a "History

of Newburyport," and a "Treatise on the Practical Principles of Political Economy," having previously translated from the French, a work on "Maritime Contracts for Letting to Hire." He also pronounced a eulogy on Jefferson and Adams, in Newburyport, about this time; took an active part in the politics of the day (as a republican), and carried on a large and successful law practice until 1829. Meanwhile he had been a candidate for Congress, from the Essex district of Massachusetts, but was defeated through the prejudice excited by an unjust charge which was made against him, of recommending himself as a suitable incumbent, in the columns of the *Boston Patriot.* Shortly after this check to his aspirations, he made a European tour, (1829–1832) with his accomplished wife, the daughter of Hon. John Wilde of Boston, whom he had married in 1824, and who was the authoress of two volumes of "Letters Descriptive of Public Monuments, Scenery and Manners in France and Spain," published in 1832, after their return to America. During the same year, also, Mr. Cushing issued his "Reminiscences of Spain—the Country, its People, History and Monuments," in two volumes; and with it another work in two volumes entitled "A Review, Historical and Political, of the late Revolution in France," etc., and, also pronounced an admirable oration at Newburyport. In 1834 he addressed the American Institute of Instruction; delivered a eulogy on Lafayette, at Dover, New Hampshire, and wrote a reply to Cooper the novelist. These evidences of his mental power, together with his high character as a lawyer and a man, fully justified the choice of the good people of his adopted town, in electing him as their representative, in 1833 and '34, in the State, where he augumented his reputation by his speech (which was afterwards published) on the currency and public deposits. Again, in 1835, he ran for Congress, and was this time successful—retaining his seat by repeated

re-elections until 1843. While there his literary inclinations were by no means obscured by his interest in national politics, as was evidenced by his frequent contributions to the *North American Review*; his tasteful articles on the legal and social condition of women; his review of "Boccaccio;" essays on Columbus and Americus Vespucci, and an oration before the Literary Societies of Amherst College, August 22, 1836, on "Popular Eloquence, and its Power in our Republic." Another oration, delivered at Springfield, Massachusetts, on the 4th of July, 1839,—shortly after the acquisition of Louisiana in a manner deemed by many to be a flagrant violation of the constitution,—forcibly urged the necessity of repressing an undue national ambition; while an oration delivered the same year before the Phi Beta Kappa Society, at Cambridge, on the "Errors of Popular Reformers," displayed great ability and ready rhetorical powers. In Congress he was ever alive and alert to the interests of his constituents, and to what he deemed important national measures. His speeches were dignified, vigorous and effective, characterized by purity of style and depth of reflection. On all subjects he could speak sensibly and effectively, in a manner that betrayed diligence of study and preparation. One of his most effective displays of oratory was his answer, in the winter session of 1836, to an outrageously abusive speech of Ben Hardin, of Kentucky, wherein he alluded to the cod-fishery, wooden-nutmeg and tin peddling of New England, whose people, he said, could see a dollar with the naked eye afar off as through a telescope.

The debate gave rise in part to an excellent article in the *North American Review*, entitled "Misconceptions of the New England Character," which was ascribed to Mr. Cushing's pen. In the early part of his Congressional career, he was a Whig;—was in 1840, an earnest advocate for Harrison's election to the Presidency, which he materially aided by writing a life of the old hero, which was largely circulated throughout the country.

On Harrison's decease, Mr. Cushing, with Wise of Virginia, and others, openly espoused the measures of the Tyler administration, and he has since been generally identified with the Democratic party,—his Congressional career being distinguished by unusual application to public business, eloquence, and parliamentary accomplishments of a high order—making his influence felt not only on the floor, but in the deliberations of committees, caucuses, etc., and he had occasion to make many voluminous reports and submit them for legislative action. In 1843, he was three times nominated by President Tyler as Secretary of the Treasury, being each time rejected by the Senate; and, in July, 1843, was appointed United States Commissioner to China; sailed in the steam-frigate Missouri, which was burned off Gibraltar, in August of that year—but fortunately rescued all his official papers from destruction—and without awaiting any further instructions from the Government, proceeded directly to China (*viâ* Egypt and India), and within six months had successfully negotiated a treaty, which was signed at Wanghia, July 3, 1844, and finally ratified between the two great powers, December 31, 1845.

Mr. Cushing, having thus enjoyed the honor of being the first foreigner who ever negotiated with "The Son of Heaven," upon equal terms, and having secured for his country an honorable standing in the great Celestial Empire, returned home *viâ* Mexico, having made almost a complete circuit of the globe, by land and sea, within a belt of forty degrees, in the period of less than one year—during which time, also, he had prepared and forwarded to the National Institute, at Washington, a highly valuable article on the peculiar geographical and unique physical characteristics of Egypt. In 1846 he was chosen to represent Newburyport in the State Legislature.

War having been declared against Mexico, Mr. Cushing warmly advocated it in the face of a strong opposition by the

people of the State, and when an appropriation of $20,000 for the equipment of volunteers was refused by the Legislature, he advanced the money himself; was shortly after chosen Colonel of the Massachusetts regiment; a few months later (April, 1847) was appointed a Brigadier-general, and was in command of the Virginia, South Carolina and Mississippi volunteer regiments in the front of the line at Buena Vista, under General Taylor. He was afterwards transferred, at his own request, to the army under General Scott, under whom he served until the peace.

While in the service, in 1847, he was the Democratic candidate for the Governorship of Massachusetts, but was defeated, and was also one of three officers appointed as a Court of Inquiry on Generals Scott, Worth and Pillow. On returning again to private life, General Cushing was elected (for the sixth time) to the State Legislature, as a representative for Newburyport, and was the life and soul of that body, actively opposing the election of Sumner as United States Senator, as well as the coalition of the democratic and free-soil parties. In 1850 and 1851 he was chosen mayor of the newly incorporated city of Newburyport by an almost unanimous vote, and a feature in the city charter, probably adopted at his suggestion, was, that the mayor should receive no salary. As mayor he displayed the same jealous care for the best interests of the municipality which he had done for those of the Union, and was exceedingly popular with men of all parties.

His interest in literary and educational matters never flagged, and he was a member of the Board of Overseers of Harvard College, and of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. In 1852 he received the merited compliment of LL.D. from his Alma Mater, and the same year was appointed an Associate Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court, and filled the position with his usual marked ability until 1853, when he was nominated by President Pierce as United States Attorney

General, from which office he retired in 1857. In this arduous position, notwithstanding the great number and complicated nature of the novel questions (arising, to a large extent, from the expansion of the national domain) submitted for his consideration, the duties were never more thoroughly and ably performed than by him. His opinions, as legal adviser to the cabinet, have been published, and though voluminous and covering a far wider range of topics than had fallen to the lot of his predecessors to decide upon, are in no respect surpassed.

In 1857, '58 and '59, he again served in the State Legislature. In July, 1860, he was president of the Democratic Convention at Charleston, South Carolina, and in December of the same year, when the occupancy of Fort Sumter by United States troops under Major Robert Anderson had deeply intensified the hostility of the South toward the North, Mr. Cushing was dispatched to Charleston by President Buchanan, as a commissioner or confidential agent of the Executive. His object, so far as its nature transpired, was a proffer on the part of Mr. Buchanan designed to postpone the inevitable outbreak of hostilities between the Secessionists and the Federal Government, until the close of his administration—then but a few weeks distant. General Cushing, who, a few months previous, had been in Charleston as a delegate (Anti-Douglas) to and president of the Democratic National Convention, found the "cold shoulder" turned to him, and left the city, after a five hours' stay, convinced that the South were dreadfully in earnest, and his report was understood to have been the theme of a stormy and protracted Cabinet meeting. In July, 1866, he was appointed one of three jurists to revise and codify the Laws of the United States, a work on which he has since been engaged, though not to the exclusion of other duties, public and private. His vast legal and general learning, and his independence of party trammels, of late years, have made him a valuable consellor for the Government in all international

questions. He had some share in the construction of the rejected Santo Domingo Treaty; and a large part in the preparation of the protocol of the Treaty of Washington as well as in the subsequent statement of our case, while he was also retained as one of the American Counsel before the Commissioners at Geneva.

Caleb Cushing has always had the reputation of being too ambitious; yet his aspirations seem ever, from youth to mature age, to have been inseparably interwoven with his desires for the welfare and glory of his country, and his motives are well expressed by the following remark from one of those defences which have been forced from him, at times, by the shafts of malice: "I am yet to be informed what there is culpable in a pure and single-hearted ambition, with a willingness, when called, to enter the career of public service, which the republican institutions of our happy country open to all its citizens, to the low alike with the lofty." And a political opponent once said of him, there was "no fear that he would ever use any other than means worthy of his elevated character to push himself" to distinction. Apropos of the expression "push" in this connection we may be allowed to quote the good-natured epigram on General Cushing, from the pen of the late accomplished Newburyport poetess, Miss Hannah F. Gould:

"Lay aside all ye dead,
For in the next bed
Reposes the body of Cushing;
He has elbowed his way
Through the world, as they say,
And, though dead, he still may be pushing."

The General's reply to this was as witty as gallant:

"Here lies one whose wit,
Without wounding, could hit,
And green be the turf that's above her;
Having sent every beau
To the regions below,
She has gone down herself, for a lover."

JOHN ADAMS DIX.

JOHN ADAMS DIX was born at Boscawen, New Hampshire, on the 24th of July, 1798, and is the son of Timothy Dix, a lieutenant-colonel of the United States army. Sent first, at an early age, to an academy at Salisbury, he was thence transferred to a similar institution at Exeter, under the well known Dr. Abbott, where he pursued his studies in the companionship of Jared Sparks, John G. Palfrey, the Buckminsters and Peabodys, who have since become eminent men. In 1811, he was sent to Montreal, in Canada, where he continued his studies under the careful direction of the fathers of the Sulpician order. In July, 1812, however, the opening of hostilities between the United States and Great Britain compelled his return to his native country, and in December, following, he received an appointment as a cadet in the United States army, and was assigned to duty at Baltimore, where his father was then stationed on recruiting service. His duties here being merely those of an assistant clerk to his father, he diligently improved the opportunity which was offered, of continuing his studies at St. Mary's college, in that city. He had already attained high proficiency in the Spanish, Greek, and Latin languages, and in mathematics; and was esteemed, by those who knew him best, as a most highly cultivated and gentlemanly young man. In March, 1813, while visiting Washington, he was tendered, unsolicited, a choice of a scholarship at West

Point, or an ensign's rank in the army. Selecting the latter he was commissioned in his father's regiment, the fourteenth infantry, and immediately joined his company at Sackett's Harbor, New York, being the youngest officer in the United States army; and was shortly made a third lieutenant of the twenty-first infantry. A sad loss shortly after befell the young lieutenant, in the death of his father, in camp, leaving a widow and eight children, besides the subject of our sketch, upon whom now devolved the responsibility of saving, for his loved ones, something from the estate, which had become seriously embarrassed by the colonel's long absence in the service. In March, 1814, he was promoted to a second lieutenancy, and in June, 1814, was transferred to an artillery regiment, commanded by Colonel Walback, to whose staff he was attached and under whose guidance he passed several years in perfecting his military education, not forgetting his favorite readings in history and the classics. While in this position, he was made adjutant of an independent battalion of nine companies, commanded by Major Upham, with which he descended the St. Lawrence, in a perilous expedition, which resulted in more severe hardship than good fortune.

In March, 1816, young Dix was appointed first lieutenant; and, in 1819, entered the military family of General Brown as an aide-de-camp, and began to read law during his leisure hours, with a view of leaving the army at an early day. During this period he was, in May, 1821, transferred to the first artillery; and, in August following, to the third artillery, being promoted to a captaincy in the same regiment in 1825. His health having become seriously impaired, he obtained a leave of absence, and visited Cuba, during the winter of 1825–26, and extended his travels in the following summer to Europe. Marrying in 1826, he retired from the army, and in

December, 1828, was admitted to the bar, and established himself in practice at Cooperstown, New York. Entering warmly, also, into politics, he became prominent in the Democratic party; and, in 1830, was appointed, by Governor Throop, adjutant-general of the State, in which capacity he rendered efficient service to the militia of New York. In 1833, he was elected Secretary of State for New York, becoming *ex-officio* a regent of the University, and a member of the board of Public Instruction, the Canal board, and a commissioner of the Canal fund. By his wise foresight and energy, school libraries were introduced into the public and district schools, and the school-laws of the State were codified and systematized.

In 1841 and 1842, he represented Albany county in the New York Legislature, taking an active and influential part in the most important measures of that period, such as the liquidation of the State debt by taxation, and the establishment of single Congressional districts. In the fall of 1842, Mr. Dix accompanied his invalid wife abroad, spending that winter and the following year in the southern climates of Europe. Returning to the United States in June, 1844, he was chosen, in January following, to fill the unexpired term in the United States Senate, of Hon. Silas Wright, who had recently been elected Governor of the State of New York. He took his seat in that body, January 27, 1845, and speedily secured a deservedly high position among his confreres, being energetic and industrious to a remarkable degree, and always well prepared for whatever question might arise. As chairman of the Committee on Commerce, and as a member of the Committee on Military Affairs, he did the country excellent service. He was the author of the warehousing system then adopted by Congress, and gave to the Canadian debenture law, and the bill for reciprocal trade, much of his time and attention. When, during the short session of

1845, the Santa Fé debenture bill was proposed, he secured an amendment including the Canadas, which, together with the original bill, was largely indebted to his advocacy for its passage. His bill for reciprocal trade with Canada, formed the basis for the subsequent reciprocity treaty. He also took great interest in army affairs, as well as in the annexation of Texas, the war with Mexico, and the Oregon difficulty; and firmly maintained the right of Congress to legislate with regard to slavery in the Territories. Owing to divisions in the Democratic party, he was not re-elected to the Senate; but ran, unsuccessfully, as the nominee of the "Free Soil" wing of that party, for Governor, in the fall of 1848. He actively sustained the nomination of General Pierce for the presidency, in 1852, and upon that gentleman's accession to office, was tendered the office of Secretary of State; which, owing to the opposition made by the Southern Democrats of the Mason and Slidell school, he was induced to decline, as also the appointment of minister to France, which was subsequently offered him. In 1853, he was made Assistant United States Treasurer in New York city; but, on the appointment of John Y. Mason to the French embassy, resigned the position, and withdrew almost wholly from politics, devoting his time, until 1859, to legal practice. At that time, however, he was appointed, by President Buchanan, postmaster of New York city, *vice* I. V. Fowler, absconded.

When, in January, 1861, Messrs. Floyd and Cobb, of the first Buchanan cabinet, resigned their positions and fled from Washington, the financial embarrassments of the Government required the appointment of a Secretary of the Treasury, in whose probity, patriotism, and skill the whole country could confide, General Dix was called to that high office, and entered on its duties, January 15, 1861. The promptness of his measures

did as much to reassure the public and save the Government, as the exertions of any other man in Washington.

On the 18th of January, 1861, three days after he took charge of the Treasury Department, he sent a special agent to New Orleans and Mobile, for the purpose of saving the revenue vessels at those ports, from seizure by the rebels. The most valuable of these vessels, the Robert McClelland, was commanded by Captain John G. Breshwood, with S. B. Caldwell as his lieutenant. Breshwood refused to obey the orders of General Dix's agent, Mr. Jones; and on being informed of this refusal, General Dix telegraphed as follows:—"*If any man attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot!*" memorable words, which became a watchword throughout the loyal States.

While a member of Buchanan's cabinet, Major (late General) Robert Anderson made his famous strategical movement from Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter, which so excited the indignation of the (arch-rebel) Secretary Floyd, that he threatened to resign if Anderson was not ordered back. General Dix, thereupon, promptly notified Mr. Buchanan, that Major Anderson's recall would be the signal for the immediate resignation of himself and the other members of the Cabinet (Messrs. Stanton and Holt), and his firmness decided the course of the weak-minded executive, and Floyd himself left—none too soon for his own neck, or the country's good.

On the 6th of March, 1861, Mr. Dix retired from the Treasury Department, and returned to his home in New York city, where he presided, on the 20th of April, over an immense meeting of the citizens of the metropolis, convened in Union Square, to take measures for the defence of the Constitution and the laws, so recently and rudely assailed by the rebel attack upon Fort Sumter—and he was also chairman of the "Union Defence Committee," organized at that meeting. On the 6th of May, he was

appointed a major-general of volunteers, from New York; and, on the 16th of the following June, he was appointed major-general in the regular army, dating from May 16th, 1861, by President Lincoln, and placed in command of the department of Maryland, his headquarters being at Baltimore. The first military movement of the war that was successful, was made under his command by General Lockwood. The counties of Accomac and Northampton, in Virginia, known as the Eastern Shore, were occupied by him, the rebels driven out, and the mildness and justness of his government restored them as loyal counties to the Union, while every other part of Virginia was in arms and devastated with war. The command of Maryland at that period required a man of the greatest tact, firmness, and judgment; for that reason, General Dix was selected by the President. His rule was one of such moderation and justice, that his reputation in Baltimore is honored by his most violent political opponents.

In May, 1862, he was transferred to the command of the military department of Eastern Virginia, with headquarters at Fortress Monroe. This department enjoyed the benefit of his services until July, 1863, when he was transferred to the Department of the East, with headquarters at New York city. To his very prompt action for the prevention of any outbreak during the draft of August, 1863, the metropolis was indebted for the peaceful manner in which that draft was finally carried out. His subsequent assignments to duty were administrative, and attended with no particular incidents of importance, except the trial of John Y. Beall and R. C. Kennedy, as spies and conspirators, in February and March, 1865, and their execution. At the so-called National Union Convention at Philadelphia, August 14, 1866, General Dix was temporary chairman. In the autumn of 1866 he was nominated, by the President, naval

officer of the port of New York, and the same day, United States minister to France, in place of Hon. John Bigelow, resigned. After some hesitation, General Dix made his election to accept the post of minister to France, and having been confirmed by the Senate, arrived in Paris, and was presented to the Emperor in January, 1867. He retained this position till March, 1869, when he resigned and was succeeded by Mr. Washburne. Since his return General Dix has remained in private life, and in March, 1872, became President of the Erie Railway, into the management of which he has introduced many needed reforms. In the intervals of a very busy life, General Dix has found some time for authorship, and his writings are marked by an elegant grace and dignity of style, which renders them, when not on technical or professional subjects, attractive and readable. This is specially true of his "A Winter in Madeira" (New York, 1851), and "A Summer in Spain and Florence" (New York, 1855). His speeches and public addresses were collected in two fine volumes in 1865. He has also published "Resources of the City of New York" (New York, 1827), and "Decisions of the Superintendent of Common Schools of New York," and laws relating to common schools (Albany, 1837).

Though now in his seventy-fourth year, General Dix preserves the erect and military bearing of the soldier, and, during the late war, was one of the finest looking officers in the army. He bears a high reputation for thorough honesty and integrity, and his character is irreproachable. If, with increasing years, he has, like his former chief, General Scott, a little vanity, it is a pardonable weakness, a most venial fault, of which his great public services should render us oblivious.

JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY,

LATE MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY TO ENGLAND.

THE designation of an author, a statesman, or a diplomatist to what shall prove his life work, is sometimes most unaccountably delayed. He may be indolent or a dilettante, just tasting here and there of literary sweets; he may have no fixed purpose in life, and rambling on in this aimless way may have reached the noonday of manhood without finding out what he is fit for, when suddenly there comes an impulse which transforms the man, rouses him to a sense of his powers and his destiny, and changes him from an elegant idler or drone in the busy hive of this work-a-day world, into a diligent, earnest student, one of the busiest working-bees in the community. And this transformation once begun is not usually left unfinished. The later years of the man's life are as busy as his earlier ones were listless and idle. We can all recall instances of this sudden and complete transformation; one of the most striking we have ever known is that of the eloquent historian whose name we have placed at the head of this sketch.

Born in Dorchester, Massachusetts, April 15th, 1814, of wealthy and highly cultured parentage, JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY seems to have had no particular inducement to take life otherwise than easily. Trained in the best schools of Boston, and entering Harvard College at the early age of thirteen, he gradu-

ated in 1831, with a fair standing, visited Europe after his graduation, spent a year at Göttingen, and another at Berlin, but without brilliant results; travelled in Italy, and in 1834 returned to America and studied law. In 1836, he was admitted to the bar, and opened an office, but sought no business, and business did not come to him. Thus far he had taken life very easily, and he seemed inclined to continue to do so. But as a man of his opportunities and position must seem to do something, he wrote a novel and published it in 1839. Its title was "Morton's Hope;" the Morton of Merry Mount, who so vexed the souls of the Pilgrims of Plymouth and Boston. The novel had some merit, and showed a leaning toward historical research; but there was no soul in it, and it died at birth. He was sent to Russia as Secretary of Legation in 1840, but stayed only eight months.

After his return he wrote, in a leisurely fashion, but with a somewhat stronger indication of the power that lay slumbering within him, several review articles. One of these on "Peter the Great," in the *North American Review*, and two on Goethe, and De Tocqueville's "Democracy in America," in the *New York Review*, attracted some attention. In 1849, when thirty-five years of age, he produced another novel on a similar theme with his first, "Merry Mount, a Romance of the Massachusetts Colony;" but, like its predecessor, it attracted little or no attention. He was not to acquire fame as a novelist, evidently.

About this time, from some cause, his attention was attracted to the history of the Netherlands. He procured some books on the subject of Dutch History, read up, and trusting to that "fatal facility" which had been one of his earlier gifts, came near ruining one of our best historians. He wrote in a hurried slip-shod way two volumes of Netherland history, and

thought of publishing it; but the conviction began to force itself upon him that the work demanded more thorough and profound investigation, and upon making further inquiry, he found that it would be necessary to go to Holland for the books and manuscripts he needed.

We have heard it from good authority, that at this period he was not familiar with the Dutch language, though he was, of course, a proficient in German. In 1851 he embarked for Europe with his family, and the next five years were spent in close and diligent study in Berlin, Dresden and the Hague. He soon became dissatisfied with his hastily written volumes, destroyed them, and began anew. He now made himself familiar not only with the Dutch language, but with its great wealth of historic literature, and having become thoroughly master of his subject, he published, in 1856, a history of "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," as fascinating as any romance, through which glides, as its hero and statesman, the mystic figure of William the Silent, while the Duke of Alva and Philip II. perform the part of the villains of the play. The success of this work was assured from the day of its publication. It was the very thing the reading world had waited for, and both in England and America it was largely in demand. It was translated into Dutch by Herr Bakhuyzen van den Brink, one of the most eminent historical writers of Holland; two translations were published in German, and one of M. Guizot's family translated it into French, Guizot himself writing an introduction.

Mr. Motley did not return to the United States until 1858, and then made but a short visit, being deeply engrossed in studies for a further history of the interesting country to which he had devoted himself. In 1861 he published two volumes of his history of the United Netherlands, and seven years later completed two additional volumes. Honors were showered

upon him by European universities and learned societies. He was complimented with the degree of D. C. L. by Oxford University in 1860, and the same year received the degree of LL. D. from Harvard. He was made a member of the Institute of France and of most of the societies and orders of merit of Great Britain and the Continent. But amid all these honors he did not forget his duty to, and his patriotic interest in his own country. In 1861, he published in the London *Times* an elaborate and forcible essay on the "Causes of the American Civil War," and by pen and voice aided the American cause, answering the hostile, arousing the indifferent, and doing much to keep Germany and Holland in friendly relations to us. In November, 1866, President Johnson nominated him Minister Plenipotentiary to Austria. He discharged his duties with ability and fidelity, and was too loyal to suit the mousing spies whom President Johnson had set to watch him, and he was recalled in 1867.

After a short visit to the United States, he returned again to his historical studies in Europe. In April, 1869, President Grant nominated him Minister Plenipotentiary to the Court of St. James, our highest diplomatic appointment. Here his course seems to have been marked by dignity and ability, but his negotiations in regard to a treaty with England on the Alabama and other questions, as well as some other matters, excited Secretary Fish's displeasure, and an acrimonious correspondence ensued, not wholly creditable to either party, but ending in Mr. Motley's recall in November, 1870. Since that time he has been on the Continent engaged in historic studies.

While Mr. Motley is not the equal of Mr. Bancroft as a philosophical historian, and does not bring to his work such a wealth of learning, or so rich an experience of all the different phases of national life, his researches have been very great into the

history of the Netherlands, and treating of a homogeneous people, occupying a circumscribed territory, he has had no occasion for that world-wide culture which has characterized the historian of our own country. Whatever he has done has been done well, and the best could do no more.

GEORGE BANCROFT,

UNITED STATES MINISTER TO THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

IT was long a tradition in literature that historical composition of a high order was only possible in a nation which had cultivated literature and political science for centuries, and that the historian must devote himself to his work alone, abandoning all other pursuits. Experience has in the present century abundantly demonstrated the folly of this tradition. Among the highest names in English literature are the American historians, Irving, Sparks, Prescott, Bancroft, Hildreth, Palfrey, Motley, and Kirk; men of elegant and profound scholarship it is true, but with the purely American habits and modes of thought, and above all, men of affairs; who have in many cases pursued their favorite studies, and composed their volumes in the not abundant intervals of engrossing public duties. In this last characteristic they have not been singular, for Gibbon, Macaulay, and Grote were all members of Parliament, and active in other departments of public and private life, while Niebuhr and Bunsen found a diplomatic career no serious hindrance to historical study; but none of these eminent historians of the Old World were so long in public life, or occupied such varied public positions as Mr. Bancroft has done.

GEORGE BANCROFT, Ph. D., LL. D., D. C. L., is the son of the late Rev. Aaron Bancroft, D. D., a learned and accomplished

clergyman and author, of Worcester, Massachusetts, whose biography of Washington, published in 1807, was translated into most of the languages of Europe, and is still a standard authority in our own country.

Mr. Bancroft was born at Worcester, Massachusetts, October 3d, 1800. His early education was acquired under his father's tuition, but his preparatory studies for college were pursued at Phillips' Academy, Exeter, N. H., and he entered Harvard College in 1813, before he had completed his thirteenth year. He graduated with the second honors of his class in 1817, and a few months later sailed for Germany to perfect his education. He spent two years at Göttingen, years of close and severe study in German, French and Italian literature, the Oriental languages, the interpretation of the Scriptures, Ecclesiastical and Ancient History, the Antiquities, Literature and Philosophy of Greece and Rome. At that time Göttingen was the most famous university in Europe for the profound learning of its professors, and their skill in imparting knowledge. In 1820, Mr. Bancroft, not yet quite twenty years of age, received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from this old and renowned university, and proceeded to Berlin, where he became a pupil of Wolf, Schleiermacher and Hegel. Here, too, he formed an intimate acquaintance with Wilhelm von Humboldt, Savigny, Lappenberg, Varnhagen von Ense, and other eminent German scholars. In 1821 he made a tour of Europe, spending some time at Dresden, Jena (where he had already become acquainted with Goethe), Heidelberg, where he made the acquaintance of Schlosser, Paris, where he became intimate with Cousin, Alexander von Humboldt, and Benjamin Constant; visited England for a month, and then passed by way of Switzerland to Italy, forming an acquaintance with Manzoni, at Milan, and a lifelong intimacy with Bunsen and Niebuhr at Rome.

He returned to America in the autumn of 1822, and was for a year Greek tutor in Harvard College. Up to this time he had looked forward to the clerical profession, and while tutor preached several sermons. But the claims of a literary life seemed to him so strong, that he abandoned all idea of the ministry. In 1823, he associated himself with Dr. Joseph G. Cogswell, a scholar of rare attainments, and the two established the Round Hill School, at Northampton, in which some of the most learned young men in Germany were employed as teachers. Its standard of instruction was too high for a preparatory school for any college then in existence in the United States, and after several years' trial it was finally given up, not, however, until it had exerted a powerful influence for good in elevating the standard of higher instruction throughout the country. Mr. Bancroft was then, as always since, a diligent student, and aside from his duties as a teacher he translated the "Politics of Ancient Greece" of his old preceptor, at Göttingen, Heeren, and published a volume of poems, whose rare beauty and finish served to show how brilliant a poet was lost to the world in the historian. At this time, too, he commenced collecting the materials for his great work, "The History of the United States," which nearly fifty years of toil still find not quite completed. The first volume of this history appeared in 1834, after ten years of study and research. Meantime he had entered to some extent on political life, making addresses and drawing up political resolutions and appeals; but though often tendered office, and once without his knowledge elected to the Massachusetts Legislature, he uniformly refused to accept or occupy any public position. He was at this time, and for many years after, a Democrat of the Jeffersonian school, and was very much in earnest in the advocacy of the doctrines of the party. In 1835, he removed to Springfield, Massachusetts, where he completed

about 1838, the second volume of his history. In 1838, President Van Buren appointed him Collector of the Port of Boston, and in this position, at that time one of very considerable difficulty, as the customs were paid in bonds, and the country had just passed through the terrible financial panic of 1837, the scholarly recluse manifested such skill, intelligence, and vigor in the administration of his office as to win the applause even of his political opponents. When he entered upon his duties there were many thousands of dollars of unpaid bonds, some of them lying over for years. When he resigned, in 1841, every bond was paid in full, and his collections amounted to several millions. During this time he found leisure to complete the third volume of his history.

In 1844, he was nominated by the Democratic party their candidate for Governor of Massachusetts, and though during the entire canvass he was in New York, studying, for twelve hours a day, manuscripts and documents relative to the early history of this country, yet he polled a much larger vote than any candidate on a purely Democratic ticket had done before, or than any one has since. He was defeated by a very small majority. President Polk immediately after his inauguration nominated Mr. Bancroft as Secretary of the Navy, and during about a year and a half of his service in that office he accomplished a vast amount of good for the navy. He founded the Naval Academy at Annapolis, procured a grant of the military fort and grounds there for its use, arranged its course of instruction, selected its professors and instructors, and ordered every midshipman on shore there. Previously the only instruction of naval cadets had been that which they received aboard ship from the chaplain, and it was desultory and very imperfect. There was no opportunity for competition in scholarship, and there was no provision for moral instruction of the young men.

He also made great improvements in the Naval Observatory at Washington, and some reforms in the mode of promotion in the navy.

He gave the order to take possession of California, and as Acting Secretary of War, directed the occupation of Texas by General Taylor. In 1846, he resigned his seat in the Cabinet, and was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Great Britain. In his three years of diplomatic service he was on the most cordial terms with the British Government, and with men of letters there and on the continent, but he never failed to demand and secure for American citizens all the rights and immunities to which the citizens of the most favored power were entitled. One measure which he carried through there, as he has since done in Germany, is worthy of notice. He claimed and secured for naturalized citizens of the United States of foreign birth, from their native country, the plenary rights of American citizens, always and in all places. As it was mainly on this point that war was declared with Great Britain in 1812, the importance of the concession thus gained will be seen at once. But while thus attentive to his diplomatic duties, none of which were ever neglected, he was devoting all his leisure to the collection of material for further volumes of his history. The State Paper Office, and all the Records of the Treasury, and the early colonial papers, were put at his disposal by the British Ministry, and he was aided in his researches in Paris by such eminent scholars as Guizot, Mignet, Lamartine, and De Tocqueville.

He returned to the United States in 1849, richly laden with historical documents and papers, and taking up his residence in New York city, devoted himself assiduously to the preparation of the fourth and fifth volumes of his history. These were established in 1852. Still continuing his labors (having revised

the earlier volumes after his return from England), he issued the sixth volume in 1854, the seventh in 1858, the eighth in 1863, and the ninth in 1866. He is understood to have three more volumes nearly ready, completing the work. He is eminently a philosophical historian, and brings the wealth of his vast and varied learning to bear upon the history of the nation. He has also published an abridgment of the earlier volumes of his history, and one or two volumes of miscellanies, comprising several of his abler orations and addresses. Mr. Bancroft had been a lifelong democrat, differing in this particular from most of the eminent scholars of our country, who were identified with the Whig party while it had an existence, and subsequently drifted very naturally into the Republican party. There was, there could be, no question of the intensity and depth of his convictions in regard to the principles of his party. But when the war came, Mr. Bancroft, who was, like many other eminent Democrats, more a patriot than a partisan, at once rallied to the support of the Union, gave to it his earnest efforts, his eloquence of pen and voice, and his most hearty labors. From that time he has been identified with the Republican party, though he probably recognizes no material change in his views, beyond the subsidence of the old issues, and the evolution of new ones to which he applies his early principles.

In 1865, he pronounced an eloquent and forcible oration on the death of the martyred Lincoln. He was appointed minister to Prussia in 1867, and negotiated a treaty with the North German Confederation, and subsequently with the German Empire, to which he is now accredited, by which German naturalized citizens of the United States are wholly released from allegiance to the government of their native country, and if they return to it for a visit, however protracted, are not liable for military service, or any of those burdens which have made it peril-

ous for them to revisit their native land. In Berlin, as everywhere else, Mr. Bancroft's great attainments, as well as his courtly and genial manners, have made him very welcome, and no representative of our country who could have been sent thither would have been more highly esteemed. A special entertainment was given by the literary men of Berlin in 1870, in honor of the fiftieth anniversary of his receiving the doctorate of philosophy, and titles, orders of merit, etc., were conferred on him in abundance. When he was Minister to the Court of St. James in 1846-9, the University of Oxford, usually chary of its honorary degrees to Americans, made him D. C. L. His alma mater had conferred on him the degree of LL. D. in 1843, and Union College had done so in 1841. In 1868 the University of Bonn had bestowed upon him the J. U. D. (the German equivalent of LL. D.), and Berlin did the same in 1870.

His life has not been without its troubles and anxieties, its strifes born of petty jealousies, its sorrows and its bereavements; but it has been, as a whole, a noble, grand life; one of patriotic fidelity to his country and her honor, of strong adherence to principle, of manly and generous devotion to the best interests of humanity.

ELIHU BENJAMIN WASHBURNE,

UNITED STATES MINISTER TO FRANCE.

ELIHU BENJAMIN WASHBURNE, United States Minister to France, was born at Livermore, Oxford county (now Androscoggin county), Maine, on the 23d of September, 1816. Two of his brothers, Cadwallader C., and Israel, Jr., have also sat in Congress, the former from Wisconsin, the latter from Maine. Elihu served an apprenticeship in the office of the *Kennebec Journal;* afterwards studied law at Cambridge Law School (Harvard University), and removed to Galena, Illinois. He was first elected to the Thirty-third Congress, from the First Congressional District of Illinois, as a Whig, in 1853; and he was re-elected to every succeeding one up to the Forty-first (1869-71), acting with the Republican party from its organization, and voting always and persistently on the side of freedom. In the 38th Congress he became the "Father of the House," by virtue of having served a longer continuous period than any other member. From the Thirty-fifth to the Thirty-ninth Congress, he was chairman of the Committee on Commerce, and in the latter session was a member of the Joint Committee on the Library, Chairman of the Special Committee on Immigration, and, at the death of Hon. Thaddeus Stevens, he became Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations. He was also Chairman of the Special Committees on the Death of President Lin-

coln, and the Memphis Riots; and was on the Committees on Rules; Reconstruction; Air Line Railroad to New York, etc.; always active, attentive, and practical in council and debate. When the war of the rebellion commenced, Mr. Washburne was the leading man of his Congressional District, "carrying it in his breeches pocket," as the saying is; occupying an elegant mansion, and powerful in political and social influence. At the first war meeting held in Galena, for the mustering of volunteers, he offered a resolution, and, in fact, engineered the meeting. J. A. Rawlins (afterwards Brigadier-General on General Grant's staff, and later Secretary of War), also made a speech. Ex-captain Ulysses S. Grant was present, unnoticed and taking no active part in the proceedings, with evidently no suspicion of the strange fate which was to lift him from the obscurity of his father's leather store to the Presidential chair. At a second meeting, the company was organized and officered, but Grant was not thought of.

A few days after, Mr. Collins (Grant's partner, and a Democrat) met Mr. Washburne and rallied him on the selection made for captain of Galena's first volunteer company, "when they could get such a man as Grant." "What is Grant's history?" was Mr. Washburne's natural inquiry. "Why, he is old man Grant's son, was educated at West Point, served in the army for eleven years, and came out with the very best reputation." So the Congressman looked up the quiet leather dealer, Grant, who lived in a modest cottage on the top of a bluff, which he could only reach, whenever he went to dinner, by a staircase some two hundred feet high. The two "struck hands," and Mr. Washburne insisted on Grant's accompanying him to Springfield, the Capital of the State.

Grant had already applied to Ohio, his native State, for a chance to serve, and to the Adjutant-General, at Washington,

from whom came no response. So they went to Springfield. Pope was the hero of the hour; confusion reigned. Grant got employment in Governor Yates' office, and the Governor, after a while, discovered his abilities, and gave him the command of a regiment. For his next promotion, the future President was indebted to the active interest of his friend, Washburne.

It so happened that President Lincoln had sent to each of the Illinois Senators and Representatives, a circular, asking them to nominate four Brigadiers. Mr. Washburne pressed Grant's claims, on the ground that his section of the State had raised a very large number of men for the war, and were entitled to such an appointment; his arguments prevailed, and, to his own great surprise, Grant was made a Brigadier-General.

In October, 1861, Mr. Washburne saw Grant at Cairo, Illinois, and seemed to have become impressed with the idea that Grant was "the coming man" of the war. When General Pope's friends urged that general's claims for a Major-General's stars, Mr. Washburne secured from the President a promise that none of the brigadiers then in commission should be promoted until they had distinguished themselves in the field.

When Grant's reputation was assailed by reports of intemperance, etc., Mr. Washburne took no rest until he had sifted the evidence, and disproved the charge. The battle of Fort Donelson rendered General Grant, in a large degree, independent of Mr. Washburne's friendly offices; but the intimacy and friendship of the two men were in no wise weakened, and it was Mr. Washburne who had the pleasure of framing the bill by which the rank and title of Lieutenant-General, only previously conferred on General Washington, was created and bestowed upon General Grant.

In 1864-5, he ran for the United States Senatorship against Governor Yates, and came very near being successful. Mr.

Washburne is bluff, hearty, vigorous in manner, yet not discourteous. As a speaker he is vehement, brief, plain, practical in the tone of his remarks, and in his deductions; his style possessing no flowery adornment, but rather a "sledge hammer" force. He is conspicuous for his persistent opposition to every form of political corruption, fighting against every grant, subsidy and private bill, and endeavoring to defeat every attempt at plunder of the public treasury.

On the accession of President Grant, he appointed Mr. Washburne his Secretary of State, in March, 1869, but he resigned about a week later in accordance with a previous arrangement, on the plea of ill-health, and accepted the position of Minister to France. He remained in Paris during the celebrated siege of that city, in 1870-1, rendering much assistance to the American residents, and conducting himself in so humane, honorable and judicious a manner during the trying emergencies and complications of that struggle, that he reflected honor upon the Republic which he represented, and received not only the most cordial acknowledgments from the Republic, at whose birth throes he was thus fortuitously present, but from the German Government also, many of whose citizens, shut up in the beleaguered city, he had protected from the hostility of the infuriated National Guard, and as the only representative of a first class neutral power, had been their sole resource.

Mr. Washburne has developed in this position a higher order of diplomatic ability than he was generally credited with possessing. His whole course has been eminently judicious, and creditable alike to himself and the Government he represents. The appointment, though made almost entirely on the basis of personal friendship, and in some sense as a requital for benefits conferred, has proved one of the best which President Grant has made

ROBERT CUMMING SCHENCK,

UNITED STATES MINISTER NEAR THE COURT OF ST. JAMES.

IT has been for many years the fashion to berate our Government on its diplomatic appointments. Our leading reviews and magazines have frequently indulged in language something like this: "A diplomatist is not, like a poet, born, not made; to the highest success in diplomacy, a life-long training is indispensable. In all the European Courts, the young men of the highest ability, who propose to make diplomacy their life work, begin as attachés to some foreign legation, and proceeding through all the stages of Assistant-Secretary, Secretary of Legation, Chargé, and Minister Resident, finally arrive at the high dignity of Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to some court, thoroughly qualified for their work." "With the United States," they continue, "there is nothing of this sort attempted. Diplomatic appointments are made without any reference to the qualifications of the appointee. Very seldom has he any knowledge of the language of the country to which he is sent, still less frequently does he know anything of its history, policy or customs; but he has been efficient in training in, or driving to the polls, a large number of voters for the Administration now in power, and therefore he is to be appointed our representative to some country, where he will be a laughing stock and disgrace to our nation."

There is just a spice of truth in this statement, so far as some few of our appointments of Ministers Resident, Consuls, etc., to the minor Powers are concerned. But in the higher appointments, such as those to Great Britain, France, Germany (or, before the late Franco-German war, to Prussia), Austria, etc., whether it was due to our statesmen having a natural talent for diplomacy, or to the skill of the Presidents and their Cabinets, the fact is palpable that we have been represented at these Courts uniformly by men who were the peers of the ablest ambassadors from other Courts. Such men as Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Everett, Mr. Dallas, Mr. Buchanan, Mr. C. F. Adams, Mr. Motley, or our present representative, General Schenck, at the Court of St. James, were, in no respect, the inferiors of the ablest men England, France or Germany have sent out as their ambassadors. Nor have our Ministers to France or Germany been behind these in ability. Gen. Cass, Mr. Rives, J. Y. Mason, Mr. Dayton, General Dix, Mr. Bigelow, Mr. Washburne, and in Germany, Messrs. J. Q. Adams, Wheaton, Wright, Judd and Bancroft, have all done honor to the nation, and they could not have done better had they been trained all their lives in "the art of using language to conceal its true meaning," which was Talleyrand's definition of diplomacy.

The statesman who now represents us near the British Court, has the attainments and experience which should qualify him for this important post, but his frank, blunt ways, his utter fearlessness, and his incapacity for any of the arts of concealment or double-dealing, will introduce a new phase in English diplomacy, though possibly a successful one for him; since Bismarck, one of the most adroit of statesmen and diplomatists, has declared, "that he had always adopted the plan of telling the exact truth and the whole truth, because it puzzled the diplomatists so much."

ROBERT CUMMING SCHENCK was born in Franklin, Warren county, Ohio, October 4, 1809. His ancestry, on his father's side, were of Dutch origin, though his father was, we believe, born in this country. He served in the War of 1812, and rose, like his son, to the rank of General. He died when Robert was but twelve years old, and the boy was put under the guardianship of General James Findley. In 1824, he entered Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, a year in advance, and graduated with honor in 1827. He studied law with Tom Corwin, and was admitted to the bar in 1828, though but nineteen years of age. He removed to Dayton, and there, in the next ten years, by diligent study and careful preparation of his cases, rose to a commanding position in his profession. He first entered upon political life in 1838, by running as a candidate for the State Legislature. In the Presidential campaign of 1840, he acquired the reputation of being one of the ablest speakers on the Whig side, in the canvass, and, in 1841, was elected a Representative in the State Legislature, from Dayton, and became at once a leader of his party in the House. After another year in the Legislature, he was elected to Congress from his district in 1843, and re-elected in 1845, 1847 and 1849. He declined a re-election in 1851, and was appointed by President Fillmore, Minister to Brazil, in March, 1851. In Congress, he was eminently efficient and practical. He displayed rare abilities and a thorough understanding of every subject on which he spoke, and, when occasion required, was quick of repartee, pungent and satirical. His nature was one of great intensity, and he always was so profoundly in earnest in his convictions, that he made warm friends and bitter enemies. As minister to Brazil, he acquitted himself with high honor, and was directed by the Government to visit Buenos Ayres, Montevideo, and Asuncion, and make treaties with the republics around the La Plata and its affluents.

He obeyed, and negotiated treaties which would have been of great advantage to us, but their ratification was neglected by the Senate.

In 1854, Mr. Schenck returned to Ohio, and though sympathizing generally in the views of the Republican party, his personal antipathy to Colonel Frémont was so strong, that he took no part in the canvass, and, we believe, did not vote. He was building up, at this time, a fine and lucrative business in his profession, and was also connected as President with one or two prominent railroad companies. In 1859, he came into more active and direct sympathy with the Republican party, and in September of that year, was the first man in the country to suggest Abraham Lincoln to a public meeting as a candidate for the Presidency. He supported Mr. Lincoln with great ardor and warmth at the Chicago Convention, in 1860, and in the subsequent canvass of that year.

When the attack was made on Fort Sumter, Mr. Schenck promptly tendered his services to the President, and was commissioned Brigadier-General of Volunteers. As he had not been known as a military man, though he had, as afterward appeared, been a diligent student of military science, his enemies, and they were numerous and bitter, determined at once that the opportunity of being revenged on him, and of ridiculing every movement he might make, was too good to be lost. Many of the West Point graduates, full of their importance, sneered at political generals, and were very glad of the opportunity to sneer at them. In General Schenck's case the opportunity soon came, though not through any fault of his, but rather through the blundering carelessness of a West Pointer. It was what was known for a time, till more important matters drove it out of the public mind, as "the Vienna (Va.) affair." In a reconnoissance by railroad cars, his troops were fired upon and several

wounded, and as the plucky General disembarked his soldiers and "went for" the enemy, the cowardly engineer ran off with the train, and left his little handful of men at the mercy of four or five times their number. But thanks to his firmness, the enemy believed these troops the advance-guard of a large force, and they ran, instead of capturing the Union troops. This whole affair, which was, in reality, as General Scott reported, highly creditable to General Schenck, except the railroad part, which was not his device, but General Daniel Tyler's (a West Point officer), was, by his enemies, used greatly to his discredit.

General Schenck's next appearance was at Bull Run, where he stood his ground, though his subordinates, several of them graduates of West Point, ran, and afterwards got promoted for doing so. He was subsequently in command under Rosecrans, in West Virginia, and under Frémont in the Luray Valley, and after the battle of Cross Keys was, for a time, commander of the First Army Corps, in General Sigel's absence. Ordered to join the Army of Virginia, then under General Pope, fighting at heavy odds against Lee's large army, he joined it just before the second Bull Run battle, and was in the thickest of the fighting of the two days that followed, being severely wounded on the second day, and his right arm permanently injured. He was unfit for field duty for six months, but was assigned to the command of the Middle Military Department, embracing the turbulent Rebels of Maryland, over whom Butler and Banks and Dix had held sway. He ruled them with a firm hand, but with perfect and exact justice, repressing all turbulence and acts tending to the manifestation of disloyalty or any complicity with treason. The "woman difficulty," which had troubled Butler in Baltimore, and led to his famous order in New Orleans, was to be met in Baltimore by General Schenck. He settled it effectually and by a very simple but characteristic manœuvre.

The Rebel women of Baltimore were particularly virulent and ingenious in their methods of annoying the Union soldiers and Union citizens. At last they began to wear the Rebel colors, displaying them flauntingly, and taking care to promenade the streets in great numbers, thus arrayed, whenever this display would particularly annoy the Union troops and their commander. General Schenck made no public demonstration, but directed that a number of the most noted women of the town should be selected, and brought to his headquarters for instruction. Each was instructed to array herself as elegantly as possible, to wear the Rebel colors conspicuously displayed upon her bosom, and to spend her time in promenading the most fashionable streets of the city. Whenever she met any one of the ladies of Baltimore, wearing the same badges, she was to salute her affectionately as a "Sister in the Holy Cause." For these services she was to be liberally paid. The effect was marvellous. In less than a week, not a respectable woman in Baltimore dared to show herself in public ornamented by any badge of the rebellion.

General Schenck was not popular with the disloyal portion of the inhabitants of Maryland. His own loyalty was too decided and earnest to permit him to trifle with them or allow them to trifle with him. In December, 1863, he resigned his commission to take his seat in Congress, to which he had been elected over Mr. Vallandigham, from the Third (Dayton) Congressional District of Ohio. He was at once made House Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs, at that time, perhaps, the most laborious Committee of Congress. He was re-elected to the Thirty-Eighth, Thirty-Ninth, Fortieth and Forty-First Congresses, and, from his position, was the leader of the House. In military matters he was laborious and vigilant; the firm friend of the volunteer, as against what he

thought the encroachments and assumptions of the regulars; the remorseless enemy of deserters; a vigorous advocate of the draft, and the author of the disfranchisement of those who ran away from it; the champion of the private soldiers and subordinate officers. He cared little or nothing for personal popularity, and would fight to the death against anything which he believed to be wrong, or which covered even the slightest suspicion of fraud. He often opposed the Administration, but he was so thoroughly honest, so fearless in his advocacy of what he believed to be right, and so able in his arguments for it, that he almost always carried his point. He would have been elected Senator, but that the people of Ohio felt that he could not be spared from the House. When Mr. Motley was recalled from the ambassadorship to Great Britain, President Grant offered the place to General Schenck, and, after much hesitation, he accepted it, and sailed for England in July, 1871. He has done honor to his position, though he has been placed in circumstances of great embarrassment and difficulty, in consequence of the hitch in regard to the arbitration of the Alabama Claims. General Schenck is a ripe and accomplished scholar, thoroughly informed on international and constitutional law, well versed in political history, and familiar with the whole range of modern literature, English, French and Spanish.

In person he is about of the middle height, square, compact, broad-chested and rugged-featured. His face indicates his Dutch ancestry, and quite as strongly his vehement passions and his inflexible will. To his enemies he is terrible: the burning, stinging eloquence of his invective comes hissing hot from his lips and scorches whatever it touches. To his friends he exhibits an entirely different phase of character, being generous, kindly, and affectionate. He can hardly be called ambitious, but with all his foibles, is one of our best and soundest statesmen.

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN,

EX-GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA.

AMONG the loyal governors of the Northern States during the rebellion, none were placed in circumstances requiring greater watchfulness, or more prompt and decisive action, than the patriotic Governor of Pennsylvania, and none fulfilled their high trust with greater fidelity and loyalty.

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN was the son of Rowland Curtin, and was born in Bellefonte, Centre county, Pennsylvania, April 2d, 1817. The inhabitants of his native county were mostly engaged in the manufacture of iron, though agriculture was by no means neglected there. The elder Curtin was a noted iron manufacturer for forty years, in Centre county, where he accumulated a large estate, and left his children an ample fortune. The mother of Governor Curtin was a daughter of Andrew Gregg, of British war fame, a Representative in Congress and United States Senate from 1807 to 1813, and one of the supporters of Jefferson and Madison.

Young Curtin was educated in Milton, Northumberland county, where he was one of the pupils at the academy of the Rev. J. Kirkpatrick. After obtaining a good rudimental education he was placed in the law office and law school of Judge Reed, of Carlisle, Pennsylvania. At this time the school

formed a portion of Dickinson college, and Judge Reed was esteemed the best lawyer in Pennsylvania.

During the year 1839, Andrew G. Curtin was admitted to the bar, and began the practice of his profession in Bellefonte. He was very successful, and transacted a large and varied practice in the courts of the neighboring counties. Like most lawyers, he took a great interest in politics, and attached himself to the Whig party of the period. He was actively engaged, during 1840, in promoting the election of General Harrison as President of the United States; and in 1844 stumped the State in support of Henry Clay—being always successful in collecting an audience on the shortest notice.

Mr. Curtin was placed on the electoral ticket for 1848, and again travelled through his native State, advocating the election of General Zachary Taylor. In 1852, he supported the nomination of General Scott, was placed on the electoral ticket, and worked arduously in his behalf. Indeed, in all his political actions, he took the side of what were known as the Pennsylvania Whigs.

During the year 1854, Mr. Curtin was very earnestly requested by the voters of the centre of Pennsylvania to accept the nomination for Governor of the State, but refused, receiving instead, the chairmanship of the State Central Committee. He was afterward appointed, by Governor Pollock, State Secretary of the Commonwealth.

Secretary Curtin devoted a great deal of his attention to common schools, and to the question of public improvements. After his retirement from the State secretaryship, he again devoted himself to the practice of the law, and was very active in the extension of railroad facilities through the centre of the State.

Mr. Curtin accepted the nomination for Governor of the

State of Pennsylvania in 1860; was elected in October of that year, and was formally inaugurated January 15th, 1861. The country was then becoming distracted by the first movements of the rebellion, and Governor Curtin soon began to make preparations to support the United States Government. On April 9th, he sent a message to the State Legislature, recommending that measures be immediately adopted to remedy the defects in the militia system of the State. The legislative committee reported a bill for that purpose, and three days after, it became a law.

The excitement attending the fall of Sumter requiring speedy legislative action, the recently adjourned Legislature was again convened, on April 30th, under Governor Curtin's proclamation of April 20th. Volunteers were called for by the United States Government, and through Governor Curtin's energy, the first regiment that entered the national capital, for its defence, was the 25th Pennsylvania volunteers, Colonel Cake. The Legislature provided for the raising of a reserve corps, and when the three years' volunteers were called for, Pennsylvania was ready to send a full division at once into the field. This Pennsylvania Reserve Corps did great honor to the State and extraordinary service to the nation. General Reynolds, who fell on the first day at Gettysburg, was one of its commanders, and Major-General Meade, afterward commander of the Army of the Potomac, another.

The territory of Pennsylvania was threatened, and its border invaded, in September, 1862, before the battle of Antietam; but the movements of the rebels, in June and July, 1863, when several of its towns were plundered and burned, its capital and its chief city threatened, and one of the bloodiest battles of the war fought, for three days, in one of its towns, created great alarm among its inhabitants, and it required all Governor Curtin's

self-possession, calmness, and executive ability, to re-assure his people and organize them for resistance to the invaders.

His executive powers were again called into exercise in the summer of 1864, when the south-eastern part of the State was invaded again by the rebels, and great destruction of property resulted. Governor Curtin was re-elected in 1863, and continued in office till January, 1867. After his retirement, he was actively engaged in business, but during the political campaign of 1867–1868, he did good service for the Republican party as a speaker, in New York, New Hampshire and Connecticut. He was strongly pressed as a candidate for the vice-presidency at the Chicago Convention, in May, 1868, but the current being evidently in favor of Mr. Colfax, he caused his name to be withdrawn.

In 1869, soon after President Grant's inauguration, he was appointed United States Minister to the Russian Court, and has fulfilled the duties of that important mission with great dignity and ability. The Catacazy difficulty at one time threatened to mar the harmony which had so long existed between the two nations, but it was fortunately settled most amicably through the admirable management of the American minister.

DAVID DAVIS,

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE U. S.

IN nothing did Mr. Lincoln show more clearly his faculty of insight into human character than in his selection of men for high official positions. He was sometimes overruled by members of his Cabinet, and men were foisted upon him of whose antecedents he had no knowledge; and occasionally wearied with the constant worry and strife to which he was subjected, he let some men pass, as every President will, who were not qualified for their positions. But of the appointments made by him from his own personal knowledge, and without extraneous influences, it would be hard to select one which was not admirably appropriate. In this class of appointments made by him entirely on his own volition, one of the best was that of Judge Davis.

The Supreme Court of the United States, though often a Court of Appeals, is one less fettered by precedents than almost any other in the world, and its ablest judges have always been, not lawyers of the minutest technical knowledge of precedent and practice in all the inferior Courts of our own or other countries, but men of broad and comprehensive views, well grounded in all the great principles on which State, national and international law are based; men with clear notions of equity, and that sound, practical, hard common sense which reaches down at once to the fundamental principle involved in a case, and does not

trouble itself with petty technical details. John Marshall, the ablest Chief Justice of that court in its whole history, could not compare for a moment with any one of a dozen lawyers we might name in New York or Philadelphia, in minute, almost microscopic knowledge of the various motions, countermotions, demurrers, arrests of judgment, and special pleas by which the progress of justice might be delayed; but he was none the less an able jurist for all that. His knowledge and his clear brain were devoted to the work of expediting justice, not of hindering it. Judge Davis is a man of the John Marshall stamp.

DAVID DAVIS was born in Cecil county, Maryland, March 9th, 1815. His family, which was of Welsh origin, removed during his childhood to Ohio, and he entered very early Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, where he graduated in 1832. Thence he went to the Cambridge Law School, and subsequently to the Yale College Law School at New Haven, and after a very thorough and careful preparation, was admitted to the bar in 1835, when but twenty years of age, and settled in Bloomington, Illinois. Business did not come rapidly to the young lawyer, but he studied his cases with great care, looking rather to fundamental principles than to petty details and technicalities, and gradually both courts and people began to find that the Bloomington attorney had mastered his cases so thoroughly, that he was sure of defeating lawyers whose reputation was higher than his own. At this time there was practising in the Circuit Courts of central Illinois, a tall, gaunt, but hard-headed lawyer, a half dozen years his senior, between whom and Davis there sprang up a strong friendship and intimacy. Lincoln (for he it was to whom we refer), though powerful before a jury, often deferred to his younger friend's thorough knowledge of the great principles involved, while Davis in his jury cases availed himself as often as he could of his friend's sledge-hammer logic. The two were

in the State Legislature together, and both, we believe, were members of the State Constitutional Convention of 1847; thence for awhile their paths diverged; Lincoln plunging into the thorny path of politics, and being a member of Congress in 1847–9; Davis adhering to the law, and being chosen in 1848 Judge of the Eighth Judicial Circuit, in Illinois, a position which he held for fourteen years. Occasionally his old friend Lincoln managed cases in his court, but much of the time he was occupied with political matters. These had little interest for the Judge, who wisely devoted himself to his duties as a jurist. Yet he had joined the Republican party in 1856, had watched with eagerness the great struggle in 1858, between Douglas and Lincoln, his sympathies being wholly with his friend.

In 1860, he was appointed a delegate to the National Republican Convention at Chicago, and labored zealously and heartily for Lincoln's nomination for the Presidency. In the autumn of 1862, there were several vacancies on the Supreme Court bench to be filled, and for one of them, Lincoln, unsolicited, named his friend Davis. The appointment was honorable alike to the President and the Judge; for while the latter was eminently qualified for the position, the former by the nomination gratified alike the public interests, and his own affectionate disposition. Judge Davis entered upon his duties December 8th, 1862. His course on the Supreme Court bench has commanded universal respect. His decisions have often been independent, and sometimes diverse from those of a part of his associates; but the reasons assigned for them were such as commended themselves to every candid mind. Of the reported cases argued during Judge Davis' term (see last volume of *Black's*, and the eleven succeeding volumes of *Wallace*), *eighty-eight* of the opinions of the Court have been delivered by him; while, in nineteen other cases, he has dissented from the majority, whose opinion decided the opinion of the Court. One who has so long held an important judicial posi-

tion as Judge Davis, and has placed upon record so many opinions, certainly affords to the public an excellent opportunity of forming a correct estimate of his habits of thoughts, in legal matters, at least. The greater part of the cases brought before the Supreme Court are of such a nature as do not involve constitutional questions; but, in those of that kind which he has had occasion to adjudicate upon, he has left upon record no uncertain indication of his views of the scope of the Federal Constitution, and the true relations thereto of the several States; and especially in all cases touching the life and personal liberty of the citizen. One of the earliest and most important of these cases was that of Milligan, in 1866, who having been arrested, tried, and sentenced to death by a military commission during the recent war, appealed to the Supreme Court, which decided boldly and squarely against the overshadowing of civil tribunals by military authority.

When Judge Davis came to consider the argument put forth by General Butler, in behalf of the Government, that martial law covered with its broad mantle the proceedings of this military commission, and authorized a military commander to suspend all civil rights, and their remedies, and to subject citizens as well as soldiers, to the rule of his will, he said:

"If this position is sound to the extent claimed, then when war exists, foreign or domestic, and the country is subdivided into military departments for mere convenience, the commander of one of them, can, if he chooses, within his limits, on the plea of necessity, with the approval of the Executive, substitute military force for, and to the exclusion of the laws, and punish all persons as he thinks right and proper without fixed or certain rules.

"The statement of this proposition shows its importance; for, if true, Republican government is a failure, and there is an end of liberty regulated by law. Martial law established on such a basis destroys every guarantee of the Constitution, and effectu-

ally renders the 'military independent of, and superior to the civil power,' the attempt to do which by the King of Great Britain was deemed by our fathers such an offence that they assigned it to the world as one of the causes which impelled them to declare their independence. Civil liberty and this kind of martial law cannot endure together; the antagonism is irreconcilable, and in the conflict one or the other must perish.

"This nation, as experience has proved, cannot always remain at peace, and has no right to expect that it will always have wise and humane rulers, sincerely attached to the principles of the Constitution. *Wicked men, ambitious of power, with hatred of liberty and contempt of law, may fill the place once occupied by Washington and Lincoln;* and if this right is conceded, and the calamities of war again befall us, the dangers to human liberty are frightful to contemplate. If our fathers had failed to provide for just such a contingency, they would have been false to the trust reposed in them. They knew—the history of the world told them—the nation they were founding, be its existence short or long, would be involved in war; how often or how long continued, human foresight could not tell, and that unlimited power, wherever lodged at such a time, was especially hazardous to freemen. For this, and other equally weighty reasons, they secured the inheritance they had fought to maintain by incorporating in a written Constitution the safeguards which *time* had proved were essential to its preservation. Not one of these safeguards can the President, or Congress, or the Judiciary disturb, except the one concerning the writ of *habeas corpus*."

The two similar cases of General Garland, a lawyer, and Mr. Cummings, a Roman Catholic priest; the former debarred from practising, and the latter arrested and fined under the action, in Missouri, of the "iron-clad" or test-oath, adopted in 1865, involved the constitutionality of that oath, which was affirmed by the opinion of the Court, a minority (including Judge Davis), dissenting therefrom.

In the case of *Brenman* vs. *Rhodes*, 1868, Judge Davis advocated the unconstitutionality of the legal-tender act; and, in the

Veazie Bank case, of 1869, concerning the constitutionality of a ten per cent. tax imposed by Congress (July 15th, 1866) on amount of notes issued for circulation by State banks, Judge Davis dissented from the opinion of his colleagues on the ground that the State of Maine had authority to charter the bank and invest it with full banking powers, and that the power of Con gress to tax banks was opposed to the right of the State.

In his opinion and action upon these and similar cases, Judge Davis has given ample proof of sound judgment, excellent sense, and above all, of clearness of thought. His style of expression is simple and lucid; his opinions never overloaded with a profusion of illustrative cases; and his brief, straightforward manner of giving reasons for a judgment is well illustrated in the cases of the *Bank of Republic* vs. *Millard* (Wallace, 10), and *Barnard* vs. *Kellogg* (Wallace, 11), and others.

At the time of the assassination of President Lincoln, Judge Davis was one of the committee who accompanied the remains of his lamented friend to their last resting place; and at the urgent request of the bereaved family, was appointed administrator upon his estate.

Of late Judge Davis has become alienated from the President, and has been disposed to take sides with the Revenue Reformers and other classes hostile to President Grant's administration. He was nominated for the Presidency by the National Labor Reform Convention, at Columbus, Ohio, February 22d, 1872, and would possibly have received the nomination of the Liberal Republicans at Cincinnati, but for the fact that there were two or three candidates from Illinois, and the convention preferred to select from some State which supported but a single candidate.

Judge Davis was wise enough to foresee the glowing future of Chicago, and to purchase largely of the land on which the city is built, and his shrewd foresight has made him a millionaire.

CHARLES SUMNER,

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM MASSACHUSETTS.

CHARLES SUMNER was born in Boston, Massachusetts, on the 6th of February, 1811. His father, Charles Pinckney Sumner, a graduate of Harvard College, a lawyer by profession, and for fourteen years, during the latter part of his life, sheriff of Suffolk county, was a gentleman of eminent probity, literary taste and ability, of whom it has been said that "the happiness of mankind was his controlling passion." These graces of disposition, as well as his noble and sympathetic character were inherited by his son; who, at an early age, developed uncommon powers of intellect and an intense thirst for knowledge. He prepared for college at the Boston Latin school, where he manifested a peculiar fondness for the classics and for the study of history; winning at the close of his course, the prizes for English composition and Latin poetry, besides the Franklin medal. In 1830, Mr. Sumner graduated from Harvard college, and in the following year entered the law school at Cambridge, where he enjoyed the friendship as well as the teachings of that eminent jurist, Judge Story; pursuing his studies with an indomitable energy and assiduity. "He never relied upon text-books," we are told, "but sought original sources, read all authorities and references, and made himself familiar with books of the common law, from the year-books, in uncouth Norman, down to the latest reports.

ANDREW G. CURTIN
CARL SCHURZ
EDWIN D MORGAN
W. A. BUCKINGHAM
REUBEN E. FENTON
HANNIBAL HAMLIN

It was said that he could go into the law-library, of which he was the librarian, and find, in the dark, any volume, if in its proper place." While a student of law, he became an esteemed contributor to the "American Jurist," a quarterly journal of extensive celebrity and circulation among the profession, of which he soon assumed the editorial charge. In 1834, he was admitted to the bar at Worcester, and commenced practice in his native city. Being, soon after, appointed reporter to the Circuit Court, he published three volumes, known as "Sumner's Reports;" and for three successive winters after his admission to the bar, lectured to the students of the Cambridge law school, in the absence of Professors Greenleaf and Story; having, also, for some time, the sole charge of the Dane school. These and other labors were performed in such a manner as to rapidly advance him to the front rank of his profession, and to attract to him the admiration of Chancellor Kent, Judge Story, and other distinguished lawyers. In 1833, he edited, with a judiciousness and scope of learning which surprised even the highest legal authorities, Andrew Dunlap's "*Treatise on the practice of the Courts of Admiralty in civil causes of maritime jurisdiction*,"—his valuable comments forming an appendix which contained as much matter as the original work. In 1837, Mr. Sumner set sail for Europe, with the highest reputation as a young lawyer of exalted talent, brilliant genius, and commanding eloquence, and bearing with him valuable letters of introduction from our highest legal dignitaries to their friends of the English bar. "When he reached England, he was received with marked distinction by eminent statesmen, lawyers, and scholars. During his stay in England, which was nearly a year, he closely attended the debates in Parliament, and heard all the great speakers of the day, with many of whom he became intimately acquainted. His deportment was so gentle-

manly, his mind so vigorous and accomplished, and his address so winning, that he became a favorite with many in the best circles of English society. The most flattering attentions were shown Mr. Sumner by distinguished members of the English bar and bench, and while attending the courts at Westminster Hall, he was frequently invited by the judges to sit by their side at the trials. At the meeting of the British Scientific Association, he experienced the same courteous attentions. In town and country, he moved freely in circles of society, to which intelligence and refinement, wealth and worth, lend every charm any grace. Nor did the evidence of such respect and confidence pass away with his presence. Two years after his return from England, *The Quarterly Review*, alluding to his visit, stepped aside to say: "He presents, in his own person, a decisive proof that an American gentleman, without any official rank or wide-spread reputation, by mere dint of courtesy, candor, an entire absence of pretension, an appreciating spirit, and a cultivated mind, may be received on a perfect footing of equality in the best circles—social, political, and intellectual; which, be it observed, are hopelessly inaccessible to the itinerant note-taker, who never gets beyond the outskirts of the show-house."

Eight years later yet, he received a compliment which, from an English bench, is of the rarest occurrence. On an insurance question, before the Court of Exchequer, one of the counsel having cited an American case, Baron Parke, the ablest of the English judges, asked him what book he quoted. He replied Sumner's Reports. Baron Rolfe said, "Is that the Mr. Sumner who was once in England?" On receiving a reply in the affirmative, Baron Parke observed, "We shall not consider it entitled to the less attention, because reported by a gentleman whom we all knew and respected." Some years ago, some of Mr. Sumner's estimates of war expenses were quoted by Mr.

Cobden, in debate, in the House of Commons. In Paris he was received with the same cordiality as in England, and was speedily admitted to a familiar intercourse with the highest intellectual classes. He attended the debates of the Chamber of Deputies, and the lectures of all the eminent professors in different departments, at the Sorbonne, at the College of France, and particularly in the law schools. He attended a whole term of the Royal Court at Paris, observing the forms of procedure; received many kindnesses from the judges, and was allowed to peruse the papers in the cases. While residing in Paris, he became intimately acquainted with General Cass, the American minister, at whose request he wrote a masterly defence of the American claim to the northeastern boundary, which was received with much favor by our citizens, and republished in the leading journals of the day. In Italy, Mr. Sumner devoted himself, with the greatest ardor, to the study of art and literature, and read many of the best works of that classic land, on history, politics, and poetry. In Germany, he was also received with that high regard which is justly paid to distinguished talent and transcendent genius. Here he formed an intimate acquaintance with those eminent jurists, Savigny, Thibaut, and Mittermaier. He was kindly received by Prince Metternich, and became acquainted with most of the professors at Heidelberg, and with many other individuals distinguished in science and literature, as Humboldt, Ranke, Ritter, etc.

With his mind thus enriched by travel, and by additional stores of varied knowledge, Mr. Sumner returned to his native land in 1840, and resumed the practice of his profession. His principal attention, however, was given to the leisurely study of the science and literature of law, rather than to its active prosecution in the professional arena. In 1843, he again resumed the

position of lecturer at the Cambridge law school, and in 1844–'46, edited an edition of Vesey's Reports, in twenty volumes—a great enterprise, conceived and executed in the happiest spirit—which elicited from the *Boston Law Reporter* the truthful estimate of Mr. Sumner's abilities, that "in what may be called the literature of the law—the curiosities of legal learning—he has no rival among us."

On the 4th of July, 1845, Mr. Sumner delivered an oration before the municipal authorities and citizens of Boston on *The True Grandeur of Nations*, an admirable production, advocating the doctrine of universal peace among nations. This oration, by its ennobling sentiments, its beautiful imagery, classic allusions and elegant diction, not only produced a profound impression upon those who listened to it, and fully established his reputation as an orator, but led to prolonged controversy upon the subject of war in general and of the Mexican war in particular.

When the eminent Judge Story died, in 1845, Mr. Sumner was universally conceded to be the fittest person to succeed him in the professorship of the law school. Story himself had frequently remarked, "I shall die content, so far as my professorship is concerned, if Charles Sumner is to succeed me;" while Chancellor Kent declared the young man "the only person in the country competent "to wear the mantle of his departed friend." But Sumner had chosen to enter upon the arena of political life; and, indeed, had already boldly planted there the banner, under whose folds he had elected to fight, viz.: the cause of human freedom and universal liberty. On the 4th of November, 1845, when it was proposed to annex Texas to the Union as a slave State, he had delivered a thrillingly eloquent protest, at a public meeting in old Faneuil Hall, against such an extension of the slave power. Within the same venerable

walls, consecrated by so many memories of revolutionary patriotism, he again, on the 23d of September, 1846, addressed the Whig State Convention on the *Anti-slavery Duties of the Whig Party*, and, not long after, published a letter of rebuke to Hon. Robert C. Winthrop for his vote in favor of the war with Mexico. On the 17th of February, 1847, he delivered, before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, a brilliant lecture on *White Slavery in the Barbary States*, a production of rare scholarship and research, possessing great interest to every philanthropist and lover of liberty. At Springfield, September 29, 1847, he made a powerful speech, before the Massachusetts Whig State Convention, on *Political Action Against the Slave Power and the Extension of Slavery;* and, at a mass convention at Worcester, Massachusetts, on the 28th of June, 1848, he gave another of his eloquent and able speeches, *For Union among Men of all Parties against the Slave Power and the Extension of Slavery*, in which he forcibly characterized the movement of the day, as a *revolution*, "destined to end only with the overthrow" of the tyranny of the slave power of the United States. Mr. Sumner, meanwhile, had withdrawn from the Whig party, and had associated himself with the "Free-soil" party, who favored the claims of Mr. Van Buren for the presidency in 1848. On the 3d of October, 1850, he delivered, before the Free-soil State Convention, at Boston, a masterly and glowing speech on *Our Recent Anti-slavery Duties*, which was a most exalted triumph of genuine oratory, and produced the profoundest impression upon those who heard it. It bore with terrible severity upon the Fugitive Slave bill, then recently passed, and upon President Fillmore, who had signed it, of whom he said, "Other Presidents may be forgotten; but the name signed to the Fugitive Slave bill can never be forgotten. There are depths of infamy, as there are heights of fame. I regret to say what I must; but

truth compels me. Better for him had he never been born. Better far for his memory, and for the good name of his children, had he never been President."

On the 24th of April, 1851, Mr. Sumner was elected by a coalition of the Free-soilers and Democrats in the Massachusetts legislature, to occupy the seat in the United States Senate, previously occupied by Daniel Webster, who had recently accepted a position in Mr. Fillmore's cabinet. He took his seat in the national council, fully and firmly pledged to "oppose all *sectionalism*, whether it appear in unconstitutional efforts by the North to carry so great a boon as freedom into the Slave States, or in unconstitutional efforts by the South, aided by northern allies, to carry the *sectional* evil of slavery into the free States; or in whatsoever efforts it may make to extend the *sectional* domination of slavery over the national Government." Soon after his introduction to the Senate, he appeared as the able advocate of aid to railroads through the new Western States. His first grand effort, however, in the Senate, was his speech, on the 26th of August, 1852, on his motion to repeal the *Fugitive Slave bill*, entitled, *Freedom National, Slavery Sectional.* He had been for a long time deprived—through the action of the pro-slavery members of the Senate, who were determined to trample upon the freedom of speech on the question of slavery—of the chance of speaking on this question; but when, seizing a parliamentary opportunity, he at length gained the floor, he rebuked, in terms of lofty but scathing rebuke, the attempt to muzzle public debate; and, with indignant eloquence, denounced the Fugitive Slave bill as cruel, tyrannical, and unconstitutional. His next great effort was his speech before the Senate, February, 21, 1854, entitled, *The Landmark of Freedom; Freedom National;* against the repeal of the Missouri prohibition of slavery south of thirty-six degrees

thirty minutes, in the Kansas and Nebraska bill. Speaking of that "*Question of questions*,—as far above others as liberty is above the common things of life—which it opens anew for judgment," he said, "*Sir, the bill which you are now about to pass, is at once the worst and the best bill on which Congress has ever acted.* Yes, sir, WORST and BEST at the same time. It is the worst bill, inasmuch as it is a present victory of slavery. In a Christian land, and in an age of civilization, a time-honored statute of freedom is struck down, opening the way to all the countless woes and wrongs of human bondage. Among the crimes of history, another is about to be recorded, which no tears can blot out, and which, in better days, will be read with universal shame. Do not start. The tea tax and stamp act, which aroused the patriotic rage of our fathers, were virtues by the side of your transgression; nor would it be easy to imagine, at this day, any measure which more openly and perversely defied every sentiment of justice, humanity, and Christianity. Am I not right, then, in calling it the worst bill on which Congress ever acted?

"But there is another side to which I gladly turn. Sir, it is the best bill on which Congress ever acted; *for it annuls all past compromises with slavery, and makes all future compromises impossible.* Thus it puts freedom and slavery face to face, and bids them grapple. Who can doubt the result? It opens wide the door of the future, when, at last, there will really be a North, and the slave power will be broken; when this wretched despotism will cease to dominate over our Government, no longer impressing itself upon every thing at home and abroad; when the national Government shall be divorced in every way from slavery; and, according to the true intention of our fathers, freedom shall be established by Congress everywhere, at least beyond the local limits of the States. Slavery will then be

driven from its usurped foothold here in the District of Columbia, in the national territories and elsewhere beneath the national flag; the Fugitive Slave bill, as vile as it is unconstitutional, will become a dead letter; and the domestic slave trade, so far as it can be reached, but especially on the high seas, will be blasted by Congressional prohibition. Everywhere, within the sphere of Congress, the great *Northern hammer* will descend to smite the wrong; and the irresistible cry will break forth: 'No more slave States.'

"Thus, sir, now standing at the very grave of freedom in Nebraska and Kansas, I lift myself to the vision of that happy resurrection, by which freedom will be secured, not only in these territories, but everywhere under the national Government. More closely than ever before, I now penetrate that "All-hail hereafter," when slavery must disappear. Proudly I discern the flag of my country, as it ripples in every breeze, at last become in reality, as in name, the flag of freedom—undoubted, pure, and irresistible. Am I not right, then, in calling this bill the *best* on which Congress ever acted?

"Sorrowfully, I bend before the wrong you are about to commit; joyfully, I welcome all the promises of the future."

On the 26th and 28th of June, 1854, Mr. Sumner, on the Boston memorial for the repeal of the Fugitive Slave bill, replied to Messrs. Jones of Tennessee, Butler of South Carolina, and Mason of Virginia, in eloquent speeches, full of interesting facts, and fine oratory. These were followed, July 31st, by his memorable speech on the "struggle for the repeal of the Fugitive Slave bill," in support of a motion for repeal of said bill, the introduction of which the Senate finally refused, although, in so doing, they overturned two undoubted parliamentary rules.

After the close of the Congressional session, he addressed the Republican State Convention, at Worcester, Massachusetts, on

the 1st of September, 1854, on *the duties of Massachusetts* at the *present crisis;* and during the following Congressional session of 1854–5, he was again found at the front, stoutly battling for human rights. When, in February, 1855, Mr. Toucey, of Connecticut, moved his "bill to protect officers and other persons acting under the authority of the United States," Mr. Sumner took the floor with his masterly speech on *the Demands of Freedom—Repeal of the Fugitive Slave bill.* Again, on the 9th of May, 1855, in the Metropolitan theatre of New York, he delivered a public address *on the Anti-slavery Enterprise,* which produced a profound impression upon the community. On the 2d of November, 1855, he spoke before a public meeting in Faneuil Hall, Boston, on *the Slave Oligarchy and its Usurpations—the Outrages in Kansas—the Different Political parties—the Republican party*—a concise, forcible and eloquent presentation of the history of the great American question.

On this question, indeed, Mr. Sumner had now become the recognized leader of the anti-slavery party in the Senate. Favored with a commanding and attractive person, a dignified and captivating delivery, a strong and melodious voice, a mind endowed with rare capabilities and still rarer acquired graces of education, and treasures of knowledge; and, beyond all, a truthfulness of character which gives additional emphasis to every word which he utters, Charles Sumner was a representative of whom the Old Bay State had every reason to be proud; a champion of freedom, justice, and humanity, whose influence and integrity were undoubted. The moment was now at hand when the eloquent orator was to become a bleeding witness, and well nigh a martyr to that "barbarism of slavery," which he had so often denounced with unsparing tongue. On the 19th and 20th of May, 1856, during the animated and protracted debate on the admission of Kansas as a State of the

Union, Mr. Sumner delivered in the Senate a speech of surpassing eloquence and power on *the Crime against Kansas—the Apologies for the Crime—the True Remedy.* In the course of this speech, which has been well esteemed as "one of the grandest efforts of modern oratory—one of the most commanding, irresistible, and powerful speeches ever made in the Senate of the United States," he vindicated, in fervid terms, the fair fame of his native State, and with keen sarcasm, severe invective, and irresistible argument, traced the course of slavery arrogance and domination in Kansas, concluding with the following feeling peroration: "In just regard for free labor in that territory, which it is sought to blast by unwelcome association with slave-labor; in Christian sympathy with the slave, whom it is proposed to task and sell there; in stern condemnation of the crime which has been consummated on that beautiful soil; in rescue of fellow-citizens, now subjugated to a tyrannical usurpation; in dutiful respect for the early fathers, whose inspirations are now ignobly thwarted; in the name of the Constitution, which has been outraged—of the laws trampled down—of justice banished—of humanity degraded—of peace destroyed—of freedom crushed to earth; and in the name of the Heavenly Father whose service is perfect freedom, I make this last appeal." This speech greatly incensed the southern members in Congress, and was the alleged provocation for the cruel and cowardly assault made upon him.

On Thursday, May 22d, two days after this speech, as Mr. Sumner was sitting at his desk in the Senate chamber, busied with his correspondence, after the adjournment of the day, he was suddenly attacked by Preston S. Brooks, a member of the House, from South Carolina, a nephew of Senator Butler, to whom Mr. Sumner had replied, who felled him to the floor with a heavy cane, with which he continued to belabor his unconscious

victim over the head, while Mr. Keitt, another South Carolina Congressman, stood by, with arms in hand, to prevent any interference on the part of Mr. Sumner's friends. The few gentlemen who were present in the Senate chamber, were at first apparently paralyzed by the scene, but Messrs. Morgan and Murray of New York, and Mr. Chittenden, rushed to his aid, and finally succeeded in wresting the infuriated scions of "chivalry" from the object of their fiendish malevolence; and they were subsequently censured by the House, and resigned their seats, both ultimately dying miserable and dishonorable deaths. The brutal attack thoroughly aroused the citizens of the Northern States to the realization of the true character of slavery as manifested in its advocates. Large indignation meetings were held in many towns and cities of the land, from the east to the west; and this attempt to stifle freedom of speech resulted in a concentration of public sentiment in regard to the assumptions of the South, which tended greatly to diffuse and promote the spirit of true liberty.

The injuries inflicted upon Mr. Sumner were of the severest character, and resulted in a long continued and alarming disability, which obliged him to seek recreation and medical advice and treatment in Europe. For more than three years, he was a great and constant sufferer, and his final recovery was due, under God, to the skill of the eminent French surgeon, Dr. Brown-Sequard, and to his own remarkably vigorous and healthy constitution. In 1860, having recovered his health, he took an active part in the presidential canvass, which resulted in the election of Abraham Lincoln.

During this year, also, he delivered his great oration on the "Barbarism of Slavery," the complement of the one for which he was so brutally assaulted.

During the discussions in the Senate, which were finally

terminated by the secession of the Southern States, he earnestly opposed all concession and compromise; and was one of the earliest advocates of emancipation as a speedy mode of bringing the war to an end. He was re-elected to the Senate in 1863, and again in 1869, his present term ending March 4th, 1875.

At the reorganization of the Senate Committee in March, 1861, Mr. Sumner was placed at the head of the Committee on Foreign Relations, a position for which his great attainments and his ability as a statesman eminently qualified him. He continued to be chairman of this important committee, rendering conspicuous service to the nation, until the assembling of the XLIId Congress in March, 1871, when, in consequence of his hostility to the Santo Domingo Scheme, his denunciation of the course of the Government in regard to Hayti, and his aversion to Secretary Fish, he was, by a majority vote of the Senate, at Secretary Fish's prompting, removed from that committee and made chairman of the less important one "On Privileges and Elections."

As Mr. Sumner had deemed it his duty to speak in terms of considerable severity of some of the measures of the administration, though not in general hostile to it, some members of both houses of Congress, and especially of the Senate, claiming to be the special friends of the President, retorted with gross personal abuse of Mr. Sumner, denouncing him as a traitor and denying that he had any claims to be regarded as a Republican. It might have been well for these men, several of whom had themselves belonged to the Democratic party till within a short time, to compare their own record with that of Mr. Sumner, and they might have found that as the founder and father of the Republican party, and always true to its great principles amid evil report and good report, he might with the utmost propriety have read them out of the party, as having only come in when office and place were to be the rewards of their fealty.

Mr. Sumner, at length wearied with their constant assaults upon him, replied in a speech of considerable length, in which he reviewed with the most trenchant severity President Grant's administration, arraigning it for nepotism, favoritism, and a lack of perception of the sacredness and dignity of the great trusts confided to it. The charges, made with that reiteration and variety of indictment which characterize the Senator's speeches, and which perhaps he derives from his legal studies, were sup ported by a vast array of proofs, and quotations from history. In one point of view, he made out his case, the particulars charged were mostly true, but the inference of evil and wicked intent was not so clearly demonstrated, and the Senator might be justly charged with some degree of malice in his labored indictment. Several replies were attempted, but none of them were very satisfactory, even to the speakers themselves. The result will undoubtedly be that for some time to come he will be in a minority in the Senate, but in his long Senatorial career he has been before now declared "outside of any healthy political organization," when slavery lifted its lash and bludgeon against him in the Senate chamber; and though the injuries of those who have been professed friends are harder to bear than the assaults of enemies, yet he is too valuable a man in the Senate to be very long "sent to Coventry," and meanwhile may console himself as did an ancient Roman Statesman:

> "And more true joy Marcellus exiled feels
> Than Cæsar with a Senate at his heels."

Mr. Sumner is not faultless; a certain imperiousness of man ner, an over-consciousness of his own really great powers, and an intolerance of difference from him of opinion, are infirmities which those who love him most heartily can but deplore, but these when set off against his long faithful and consistent service, his intense patriotism and his broad and comprehensive views

on all subjects of statesmanship, may well be regarded as but slight and inconsiderable blemishes in a character otherwise spotless. It is a fact creditable in the highest degree to both men, that Mr. Sumner and Mr. Wilson, though differing widely at present in their political views, are personally very warm friends, and each has the utmost confidence in the integrity and sincerity of the other. When Mr. Wilson was nominated for Vice-President in June, Mr. Sumner was among the first to congratulate him, and would doubtless vote for him could he do so without voting for President Grant at the same time.

Personally Mr. Sumner is a man of fine and commanding presence, and of great dignity and courtesy of manner, and outside of the political arena, very popular. In the extent and profundity of his culture, in his wide range of knowledge on all questions of national and international law, history and political economy, and the breadth and comprehensiveness of his views as a statesman, Mr. Sumner has few equals and no superior.

JOHN SHERMAN
JOHN LOGAN
P. H. SHERIDAN
HENRY WILSON
O. S. BOUTWELL
W. D. KELLEY

HENRY WILSON,

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM MASSACHUSETTS

FROM the lowliest to the loftiest station—from extreme penury, the hard grinding poverty which knows the bitter experiences of hunger, and insufficient clothing, and wearisome toil, even in childhood, from the early dawn far into the hours of night, to the comforts and enjoyments of refined society, and a position in the highest legislative body in the world, the American Senate—these are the vicissitudes through which more than one of our eminent statesmen have passed. Senator Wilson is one of those whose lives have not been all sunshine, and who have attained their present high station only through labor and struggles, which less resolute, earnest men would have deemed beyond human power and endurance.

HENRY WILSON was born in Farmington, New Hampshire, February 16th, 1812. His parents were extremely poor: and this son they were driven, by their poverty, to bind out to a farmer, as an apprentice, when he was but ten years of age. The apprenticeship was for eleven years, an age to a boy. It would seem, however, that he fell into good hands; for, though faring much as other bound-boys do, in regard to the labor of the farm, he had his fair share of schooling, and by some appropriation of the hours usually devoted to sleep, and a careful

husbanding of those which he could rightfully call his own, he had managed, in those eleven years, to read eagerly and treasure, in part at least, in his memory, more than a thousand volumes of history, biography, travel, discovery, etc. There was no reason to fear that a boy, so ravenously hungry for knowledge, would remain through life in a position as humble as that from which he sprung. Senator Wilson has none of that miserable snobbishness, which leads some men to desire to conceal their humble birth. No! he glories rather in being "a son of the soil." Witness his reply to that infamous speech of Governor Hammond, of South Carolina, in which he characterized working men as mudsills, and asserted that, "the hireling manual laborers," who lived by daily toil, were "essentially slaves." To these taunts, Mr. Wilson replied:

"Sir, I am a son of a hireling 'manual laborer;' who, with the frosts of seventy winters on his brow, 'lives by daily labor.' I, too, have 'lived by daily labor.' I, too, have been a 'hireling manual laborer.' Poverty cast its dark and chilling shadow over the home of my childhood; and want was sometimes there—an unbidden guest. At the age of ten years—to aid him who gave me being in keeping the gaunt spectre from the hearth of the mother who bore me,—I left the home of my boyhood, and went forth to earn my bread by 'daily labor.'"

A noble, manly avowal, which ought to have won the respect of the haughty slavocrat, who was himself not more than two generations removed from the "mudsills," whom he contemned.

When Mr. Wilson was twenty-one years of age, he left New Hampshire, and entered a shoe-shop at Natick, Massachusetts, to learn the art and mystery of shoemaking. He labored at this trade for three years, and, at the end of that time, having, as he supposed, earned a sufficient sum to enable him to obtain a collegiate education, he returned to New Hampshire, and, in

1836, entered Strafford Academy, to complete his preparation for college.

A few weeks previous to this, however, he had visited the national capital, and listened to the exciting debates in the Senate chamber and the hall of Representatives. There he had seen Pinckney's resolutions, against the reception of anti-slavery petitions, receive a majority vote in the house, and Calhoun's Incendiary Publication Bill, pass the Senate by the casting vote of Vice-President Van Buren. He had visited, too, Williams's slave-pen; had seen men and women in chains, put upon the auction block, for the crime of possessing "a skin darker than his own," and sold to hopeless slavery in the far southwest. Shoemakers are proverbially thoughtful men, and this one was no exception to the rule. He thought deeply and sadly of the horrors and aggressions of slavery, its inhuman cruelties, its traffic in the souls and bodies of men, its deliberate trampling upon the political as well as social rights of the nation, and from that day forth, the settled purpose of his heart was to make war upon slavery. That purpose he has never changed. His method of conducting the contest may have differed, sometimes, from those of other prominent anti-slavery leaders; they may have been as good, or better, or worse; but to one aim he has ever been true, the overthrow of the slave power. At the close of his first term at Strafford academy, at the public exhibition, he maintained the affirmative of the question, "Ought Slavery to be abolished in the District of Columbia?" in an oration of decided ability. Early the next year, the young men of New Hampshire held an Anti-slavery Convention, at Concord, and Mr. Wilson, who was then attending the academy at Concord, was a delegate to the convention, and took an active part in its deliberations.

The opportunities of our young shoemaker for attaining a

higher education in academies and colleges were destined to be short. The man to whom he had entrusted the hard-earned little hoard which was to pay his way through college, became insolvent, and the money was wholly lost. Sorrowful, but not despondent, he retraced his steps to Natick, and, after teaching school for a time, engaged in the shoe manufacturing business, and prospered. He continued in this pursuit for several years, still employing all his leisure in mental cultivation. In 1840, he took an active part in promoting the election of General Harrison, making more than sixty speeches, during the campaign, and proving a very effective political speaker. He was elected the same autumn to the house of representatives of the State legislature, and re-elected in 1841. In 1844 and 1845, he was chosen as State Senator from his district. He took an active part in favor of the admission of colored children into the public schools, the protection of colored seamen in South Carolina, and in opposition to the annexation of Texas. In the autumn of 1845, he got up a convention, in the county of Middlesex, at which a committee was appointed, which obtained more than sixty thousand signatures to petitions against the admission of Texas, as a slave State; and with the poet Whittier, was appointed a committee to carry the petitions to Washington. In 1846, Mr. Wilson was again a member of the House of Representatives. He introduced the resolution, declaring the continued opposition of Massachusetts to "the farther extension and longer existence of slavery in America," and made an elaborate speech in its favor, which was pronounced by Mr. Garrison in "*The Liberator*," to be the most comprehensive and exhaustive speech on slavery ever made in any legislative body in the United States.

Mr. Wilson was a delegate to the Whig National Convention at Philadelphia, in 1848; and on the rejection by the Conven-

tion of the Wilmot Proviso, and the nomination of General Taylor, he denounced its action, retired from it, returned home, and issued an address to the people of his district vindicating his action. He purchased "*The Boston Republican*," the organ of the Free-soil party in Massachusetts, and edited it for more than two years.

In 1850, Mr. Wilson was again a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, and the candidate of the Free-soil members for Speaker. He was the chairman of the State Central Free-soil Committee; was the originator and organizer of the celebrated coalition between the Free-soil and Democratic parties, which made Mr. Boutwell governor in 1851 and 1852, and sent Mr. Rantoul and Mr. Sumner to the Senate of the United States. He was a member of the State Senate in 1851 and 1852, and president of that body in those years. In 1852, he was a delegate to the Free-soil National Convention at Pittsburg; was made president of the convention, and chairman of the National Committee. He was the Free-soil candidate for Congress in 1852; and though his party was in a minority, in the district, of nearly eight thousand, he was beaten by only ninety-three votes. He was a member of the Massachusetts Constitutional Convention in 1853, and took a leading part in its deliberations. In 1853 and 1854, Mr. Wilson was the candidate of the Free-soil party for Governor of Massachusetts; and in 1855 he was elected to the Senate to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Mr. Everett.

"Time," it is said, "often brings its whirligig of revenges;" but it is seldom the case that one occurs more marked than this. The Whig party of Massachusetts was essentially an aristocratic party; its leaders were all men of high culture, of great refinement, fastidious in the extreme—and though, upon occasion, professing great friendship and regard for the working men,

they were generally very careful to avoid any close contact with them. Edward Everett, a good, though timid man, an elegant scholar, a courteous gentleman, and the associate and friend of the titled aristocracy of Great Britain, had represented them in the Senate. Mr. Sumner had been his colleague for a year or two previous, it is true, and this annoyed them. But Mr. Sumner was an elegant scholar, a man of refinement, and of a distinguished family; so that, notwithstanding his abolitionism, they could endure him. But imagine the horror of the Winthrops, the Appletons, the Lawrences, and the rest of the cotton lords, on learning that the Natick shoemaker, whom they had been disposed to snub when he was a member of their party, and whose defection to the ranks of the Free-soilers they had regarded as rather a matter of rejoicing than regret, had the audacity to be a candidate for the Senatorship which Edward Everett had filled! and, what was worse, was actually elected! They denounced, in no measured terms, this disgrace to the old and fair fame of Massachusetts.

But the Natick mechanic, like another mechanic from Waltham, who was elected to Congress the same year, and who was subsequently the governor of the State, proved to be no boor. He was not, probably equal to his predecessor in classic or belles-lettres scholarship, but he had made the most of his scanty opportunities of intellectual culture. He was a gentleman in his manners and address, and in thorough mastery of all political questions relating to our own government, and able, fearless exposition of the principles which lie at the foundation of all good government, he was the peer of Mr. Everett, or any man in the Senate. So fully have the people of Massachusetts been satisfied of his ability to represent the State, and of his industry and faithfulness as a legislator, that they have

thrice re-elected him, for the term of six years, by an almost unanimous vote of their Legislature.

In the Senate, from the 10th of February, 1855, the day on which he first took his seat, he has been the inflexible and relentless enemy of slavery, and has done as much, or more, than any other man in the nation for its overthrow. In his first speech, made a few days after entering the Senate, he announced the uncompromising position of himself and his anti-slavery friends to be, "We mean, sir, to place in the councils of the nation, men who, in the words of Jefferson, 'have sworn, on the altar of God, eternal hostility to every kind of oppression over the mind and body of man.'" Mr. Wilson was a member of the American National Council, held at Philadelphia in 1855, and the acknowledged leader of the opponents of slavery. In response to a rude menace of one of the southern leaders, who left his seat, crossed the room, and, with his hand upon his revolver, took a seat beside him while addressing the convention, Mr. Wilson said—"Threats have no terrors for freemen; I am ready to meet argument with argument, scorn with scorn, and, if need be, blow with blow. It is time the champions of slavery in the South should realize the fact, that the past is theirs—the future, ours." Under his lead, the anti-slavery delegates issued a protest against the action of the National Council, seceded from it, disrupted the organization, and broke its power forever.

When, in the spring of 1856, Mr. Sumner was assailed in the Senate chamber by Preston S. Brooks, of South Carolina, for words spoken in debate, Mr. Wilson, on the floor of the Senate, characterized that act as "Brutal, murderous, and cowardly." These words, uttered in the Senate chamber, drew forth a challenge from Brooks; to which Mr. Wilson replied, in words which were enthusiastically applauded by the country,

"I have always regarded duelling as a lingering relic of barbarous civilization, which the law of the country has branded as a crime. While, therefore, I religiously believe in the right of self-defence, in its broadest sense, the law of my country, and the matured convictions of my whole life, alike forbid me to meet you for the purpose indicated in your letter." This response to the drunken and blood-thirsty bully who had sent the challenge, was effectual. He did not desire to prosecute a quarrel with a man who "believed in the right of self-defence in its broadest sense," and he wisely concluded to let Mr. Wilson alone. For the four or five years that followed, the position of Mr. Wilson as one of the acknowledged leaders of the Republican party, then a small minority in the Senate, was one of great difficulty; yet he never faltered or flinched. Base and outrageous measures, in the interests of slavery, were passed by the majority, but never without his earnest protest, and his exhausting all possible means of opposition to them. The members of that gallant band of Republicans in the Senate, knew that they could always confide in the strong common sense, the unfailing command of temper, and the ready and skilful use of all the resources which his thorough knowledge of political tactics, and of parliamentary rules, enabled him to command; and they were content to organize for each contest under his direction.

In the new distribution of committees in the Senate, made by Vice-President Hamlin, in March, 1861, Mr. Wilson was wisely assigned to the chairmanship of the committee on Military Affairs. For four years previous he had been a member of that committee, when Jefferson Davis was its chairman, and, though in a minority, had profited by his position in becoming thoroughly familiar with all the details of the condition of the arms and defences of the country, and the state of the army and

its officers. To it he now brought his indomitable energy and tireless industry. Its duties were multiplied a hundred fold in the four years that followed.

The important legislation for raising, organizing, and governing the armies, originated in that committee, or was passed upon by it; and eleven thousand nominations, from the second lieutenant to the lieutenant-general, were referred to it. The labors of Mr. Wilson as chairman of the committee were immense. Important legislation affecting the armies, and the thousands of nominations, could not but excite the liveliest interest of officers and their friends; and they ever freely visited him, consulted with and wrote to him. Private soldiers, too, ever felt at liberty to visit him or write to him concerning their affairs. Thousands did so; and so promptly did he attend to their needs, that they christened him the "Soldier's Friend."

Having been, for twenty-five years, the unflinching foe of slavery, and all that belonged or pertained to it, comprehending the magnitude of the issues, and fully understanding the character of the secession leaders, Mr. Wilson believed that the conflict, whenever the appeal should be made to arms, would be one of gigantic proportions. Being in Washington when Fort Sumter fell, he was one among the few who advised that the call should be for three hundred thousand instead of seventy-five thousand men. On the day that call was made, he induced the Secretary of War to double the number of regiments apportioned to Massachusetts.

Returning to Massachusetts, he met the sixth regiment on its way to the protection of the capital. He had hardly reached Boston when the startling intelligence came that the regiment had been fired upon in the streets of Baltimore. Having passed that anxious night in the company of his friend General Schouler, adjutant-general of the commonwealth, discussing

the future that darkly loomed up before them, he left the next day for Washington. He sailed from New York, on the 21st of April, with the forces leaving that day, and found General Butler at Annapolis, and communication with the capital closed. At the request of General Butler, he returned to New York, obtained from General Wool several heavy cannon for the protection of Annapolis, and then went to Washington, where he remained most of the time, until the meeting of Congress, franking letters for the soldiers, working in the hospitals, and preparing military measures to be presented when Congress should meet on the 4th of July. On the second day of the session, Mr. Wilson introduced five bills and a joint resolution. The first bill was a measure authorizing the employment of five hundred thousand volunteers for three years, to aid in enforcing the laws; the second was a measure increasing the regular army by the addition of twenty-five thousand men; the third was a measure providing for the "better organization of the military establishment," in twenty-five sections, embracing very important provisions. These three measures were referred to the Military Committee, promptly reported back by Mr. Wilson, slightly amended, and enacted into laws. The joint resolution to ratify and confirm certain acts of the President for the suppression of insurrection and rebellion was reported, debated at great length, but failed to pass, though its most important provisions were, on his motion, incorporated with another measure.

Mr. Wilson, at the called session, introduced a bill in addition to the "Act to authorize the Employment of Volunteers," which authorized the President to accept five hundred thousand more volunteers, and to appoint for the command of the volunteer forces, such number of major and brigadier generals as in his judgment might be required; and this measure was passed.

He introduced bills "to authorize the President to appoint additional aides-de-camp," containing a provision abolishing flogging in the army; "to make appropriations;" "to provide for the purchase of arms, ordnance, and ordnance stores;" and "to increase the corps of engineers;" all of which were enacted. He introduced also a bill, which was passed, "to increase the pay of the privates," which raised the pay of the soldiers from eleven to thirteen dollars per month and provided that all the acts of the President respecting the army and navy should be approved, legalized and made valid. The journals of the Senate, and the "Congressional Globe," bear ample evidence that Mr. Wilson's labors at this period were incessant, in originating and pressing forward the measures for increasing and organizing the armies, to meet the varied exigencies of the mighty conflict so suddenly forced upon the nation.

At the close of the session, General Scott emphatically declared that Senator Wilson had done more work, in that short session, than all the chairmen of the military committees had done in the last twenty years. Indeed, so highly did the veteran general-in-chief prize his labors, that, on the 10th of August, 1861, he addressed him an autograph letter, thanking him most warmly for his able and zealous efforts, and expressing the hope that it might be long before the army should lose his valuable services in the same capacity.

A fondness for military studies, and a considerable experience in the organization of the militia, in which, before becoming a Senator, he had passed through the various official grades up to the rank of brigadier-general, added to the very large amount of theoretical knowledge acquired in his service on the military committee, rendered it desirable that Senator Wilson should hold a military command, and accordingly, after the adjournment of Congress, General Scott recommended to the

President, the appointment of Senator Wilson to the office of brigadier-general of volunteers; but, as the acceptance of such a position would have required the resignation of his seat in the Senate, the subject was, after consideration, dropped. Anxious, however, to do something for the endangered country during the recess of Congress, Mr. Wilson made an arrangement with General McClellan to go on his staff, as a volunteer aide-de-camp, with the rank of colonel; but at the pressing solicitation of Mr. Cameron, Mr. Seward, and Mr. Chase, who were very anxious to give a new impulse to volunteering, then somewhat checked by the defeat at Bull Run, he accepted authority to raise a regiment of infantry, a company of sharpshooters, and a battery of artillery. Returning to Massachusetts, he issued a stirring appeal to the young men of the State, called and addressed several public meetings, and in forty days filled to overflowing the twenty-second regiment, one company of sharpshooters, two batteries, and nine companies of the twenty-third regiment, in all, numbering nearly two thousand three hundred men. He was commissioned colonel of the twenty-second regiment, with the distinct understanding that he would remain with the regiment but a brief period, and would arrange with the War Department, to have an accomplished army officer for its commander. With the twenty-second regiment, a company of sharpshooters, and the third battery of artillery, he went to Washington, and was assigned to General Martindale's brigade, in Fitz John Porter's division, stationed at Hall's hill in Virginia. The passage of the regiment, from their camp at Lynnfield to Washington, was an ovation. On Boston Common, a splendid flag was presented to the regiment by Robert C. Winthrop; in New York, a flag was presented by James T. Brady, and a banquet given by the citizens, which was attended by eminent men of all parties.

After a brief period, General Wilson, at the solicitation of the Secretary of War, resigned his commision, put the accomplished Colonel Gove of the regular army in command of his regiment, and took the position of volunteer aid, with the rank of colonel, on the staff of General McClellan. The Secretary of War, in pressing General Wilson to resign his commision and take this position, expressed the opinion that it would enable him, by practical observation of the condition and actual experience of the organization of the army, the better to prepare the proper legislation to give the highest development and efficiency to the military forces. He served on General McClellan's staff until the 9th of January, 1862, when pressing duties in Congress forced him to tender his resignation. In accepting it, Adjutant-General Williams said :—

"The major-general commanding, desires me to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 9th instant, in which you tender your resignation of the appointment of aid-de-camp upon his staff. The reasons assigned in your letter are such, that the general is not permitted any other course than that of directing the acceptance of your resignation. He wishes me to add, that it is with regret that he sees the termination of the pleasant official relations which have existed between you and himself; and that he yields with reluctance to the necessity created by the pressure upon you of other and more important public duties."

During the second session of the XXXVIIth Congress, Mr. Wilson originated, introduced, and carried through, several measures of vital importance to the army, and the interests of the country. Among these measures, were the bills "relating to courts-martial;" "to provide for allotment certificates;" "for the better organization of the signal department of the army;" "for the appointment of sutlers in the volunteer service, and

defining their duties;" "authorizing the President to assign the command of troops in the same field or department, to officers of the same grade, without regard to seniority;" "to increase the efficiency of the medical department of the army;" "to facilitate the discharge of enlisted men for physical disability;" "to provide additional medical officers of the volunteer service;" "to encourage enlistments in the regular army, and volunteer forces;" "for the presentation of medals of honor to enlisted men of the army and volunteer forces, who have distinguished, or who may distinguish themselves in battle during the present rebellion;" "to define the pay and emoluments of certain officers of the army, and for other purposes,"—a bill of twenty-two sections of important provisions; and "to amend the act calling forth the militia to execute the laws, suppress insurrection, and repel invasion." This last bill authorized for the first time the enrolment in the militia, and the drafting, of negroes; and empowered the President to accept, organize, and arm colored men for military purposes. Military measures introduced by other Senators, or originating in the House, and amendments made to Senate bills in the House, were referred to the Committee on Military Affairs, imposing upon Mr. Wilson much care and labor.

During the session, Mr. Cameron, the Secretary of War, resigned; and on leaving the department, he said, in a letter to Senator Wilson:—"No man, in my opinion, in the whole country, has done more to aid the War Department in preparing the mighty army now under arms, than yourself; and, before leaving this city, I think it my duty to offer to you my sincere thanks, as its late head. As chairman of the Military Committee of the Senate, your services were invaluable. At the first call for troops, you came here; and up to the meeting of Congress, a period of more than six months, your labors

were incessant; sometimes in encouraging the administration by assurance of support from Congress, by encouraging volunteering in your own State, by raising a regiment yourself, when other men began to fear that compulsory drafts might be necessary; and in the Senate, by preparing the bills, and assisting to get the necessary appropriations for organizing, clothing, arming, and supplying the army, you have been constantly and profitably employed in the great cause of putting down this unnatural rebellion."

Mr. Cameron was succeeded by Mr. Stanton, whose rapid intuitions, indomitable energy, and wonderful industry, and executive ability, were made so manifest in the six years which followed, and enabled him to accomplish more than any other man could have done for the prosecution of the war. That Mr. Stanton's manner was brusque and abrupt, is well known, but his relations with Mr. Wilson, which were constant throughout the war, were of the most cordial and friendly character, and the secretary always found in him a prompt and able defender. In the last session of the XXXVIIth, and the whole of the XXXVIIIth Congress, Mr Wilson labored with the same vigor and persistency to organize and develop the military resources of the nation, to do justice to the officers, and to care for the soldiers. Aside from the numerous bills which, though originating with him, were offered by others, and the amendments which he suggested to bills originating with other Senators, or with the House of Representatives, the following important measures were introduced and advocated by him, and passed through his efforts:—"An act to facilitate the discharge of disabled soldiers, and the inspection of convalescent camps and hospitals;" "to improve the organization of the cavalry forces;" "to authorize an increase in the number of major and brigadier-generals;" "for enrolling and calling out

the national forces, and for other purposes;" (this act contained thirty-eight sections, and was one of the most important passed during the session;) "to amend an act entitled 'An act for enrolling and calling out the national forces;'" (this bill contained the provision that "colored persons should, on being mustered into the service, become free;") "an act to establish a uniform system of ambulances in the armies;" "to increase the pay of soldiers in the United States army, and for other purposes;" (this increased the pay of a private soldier to sixteen dollars a month;) "to provide for the examination of certain officers of the army;" "to provide for the better organization of the Quartermaster's Department;" "an act in addition to the several acts for enrolling and calling out the national forces;" "to incorporate a national military and naval asylum for the relief of totally disabled men of the volunteer forces;" "to incorporate the National Freedmen's Saving Bank;" "to incorporate the National Academy of Sciences;" (the humble shoemaker perfecting and reporting a bill for the organization of an association of the most learned and scientific men of the nation!) "to encourage enlistments, and promote the efficiency of the military and naval forces, to making free the wives and children of colored soldiers;" and a joint resolution "to encourage the employment of disabled and discharged soldiers." The important legislation securing to colored soldiers equality of pay from the 1st of January, 1864, and to officers in the field an increase in the commutation-price of the ration; and three months' extra pay to those who should continue in service to the close of the war, was moved by Mr. Wilson upon appropriation-bills.

With the close of the XXXVIIIth Congress, or rather shortly after its adjournment, came the conclusion of the war. But the assembling of the XXXIXth Congress, in the follow-

ing December, brought no cessation of labor to Mr Wilson. The bill for the continuation of the Freedmen's Bureau, the Civil Rights bill, the Fourteenth Constitutional Amendment, the questions of the basis of representation, negro suffrage, and the Reconstruction acts of that and the XLth Congress, as well as the matter of impeachment, all demanded his attention. The creation of the rank of general in the army, and admiral in the navy, both originated with his committee, and he had the satisfaction of seeing Lieutenant-General Grant appointed to the one, and Vice-Admiral Farragut to the other, and the two brave and deserving officers, Major-General Sherman, and Rear-Admiral Porter, advanced to the vacancies thus made. But while laboring, with ever-watchful care, for the interests of the army and the support of the Government in its gigantic efforts to suppress the rebellion, Mr. Wilson did not lose sight, for a moment, of slavery, to the ultimate extinction of which he had consecrated his life more than a quarter of a century before slavery revolted against the authority of the nation. In that remarkable series of anti-slavery measures which culminated in the anti-slavery amendment of the Constitution, he bore no undistinguished part. He introduced the bill abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, which became a law on the 16th of April, 1862, and by which more than three thousand slaves were made forever free, and slavery became forever impossible in the nation's capital. He introduced a provision, which became a law on the 21st of May, 1862, providing that persons of color in the District of Columbia should be subject to the same laws to which white persons were subject; that they should be tried for offences against the laws in the same manner as white persons were tried, and, if convicted, be liable to the same penalty, and no other, as would be inflicted upon white persons for the same crime. On the 12th of July, 1862,

he introduced from the Military Committee the bill, which became the law on the 17th, to amend the act of 1795, calling for the militia to execute the laws. This bill made negroes a part of the militia, authorized the President to receive, into the military or naval service, persons of African descent, and made free such persons, their mothers, wives, and children, if they owed service to any persons who gave aid to the rebellion. On the 24th of February, 1864, he caused the enrolment act to be so amended as to make colored men, whether free or slave, part of the national forces; and the masters of slaves were to receive the bounty when they should free their drafted slaves. On the Committee of Conference, Mr. Wilson moved that the slave should be made free, not by the act of their masters, but by the authority of the Government, the moment they entered the service of the United States, and this motion prevailing, the act passed in that form. General Palmer reported that in Kentucky alone, more than twenty thousand slaves were made free by it. He subsequently introduced, and in the face of the most persistent opposition carried through, a joint resolution making the wives and children of all colored soldiers forever free. Six months after the passage of this bill, Major-General Palmer reported that, in Kentucky alone, nearly seventy-five thousand women and children had received their freedom through it.

Senator Wilson also moved and carried an amendment to the army appropriation bill of June 15, 1864, providing that all persons of color who had been or who might be mustered into the military service should receive the same uniform, clothing, arms, equipments, camp equipage, rations, medical attendance, and pay, as other soldiers, from the first day of January, 1864.

His efforts in behalf of the fifty-fourth and fifty-fifth Massachusetts colored regiments are well known, and it was due to

his persistency, that they received a part of what was their just due. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was originally reported by him, and in all the subsequent legislation on that subject, he was active and decided in favor of its organization and maintenance. He defended with great ability and secured the adoption of negro suffrage as a part of the Congressional plan of reconstruction, and in both the XXXIXth and XLth Congresses, he has maintained fully his old reputation as the champion of the oppressed and down trodden.

This championship is with him no matter of expediency, no political trick to gain a cheap popularity. Born in poverty, nursed in childhood in the lap of penury, and throughout his youth and early manhood accustomed to constant and severe manual labor, he has learned, from the stern experiences of his own early life, the divine art of sympathy, and has become imbued with the doctrine of human brotherhood and love. A man of the people, sprung from the toiling classes, he has profound faith in them, and commands, as few men can, their earnest and abiding love.

From boyhood Mr. Wilson has been strictly temperate and a man of irreproachable moral character; but within the past six or seven years, he has felt the necessity of a more actively religious life, and professing conversion, has united himself with the Congregational church at his home. In this, as in all other public acts of his life, he has given abundant proof of his earnestness and the purity of his motives. He was, in 1866, active in organizing a Congressional Temperance society, an association of which there was much need, and has been using his great influence to win members of Congress, who had fallen into habits of intoxication, to reformation. He has met with gratifying success in this laudable enterprise.

Mr. Wilson was a prominent candidate (rather from the

urgency of his friends than from any particular ambition of his own) for the Vice-Presidency, in the political campaign of 1868, and though Mr. Colfax eventually received the nomination, the vote for Mr. Wilson was large, and under other circumstances could not have failed to secure him a place on the ticket.

On the election of General Grant to the Presidency he was tendered a position in the Cabinet, but he wisely preferred his place in the Senate to which, in 1871, he was re-elected, as being one of equal dignity and less liability to censure. In the recent discord among the Republicans of the Senate, Mr. Wilson has supported President Grant, though temperately and with moderation; but while he differs in his views from his able and distinguished colleague (Mr. Sumner), their personal relations to each other are, as they always have been, cordial and heartily friendly.

At the National Republican Convention held at Philadelphia, June 5th and 6th, 1872, Mr. Wilson was nominated for the Vice-Presidency on the first ballot, receiving 384½ votes against 314½ polled for Mr. Colfax. This result was due to several causes, of which Mr. Wilson's real merit and ability was one; a declinature by Mr. Colfax of a renomination, early in 1871, which was subsequently reconsidered, and the belief that after the scathing speech of Mr. Sumner, Mr. Wilson's nomination was necessary to secure the New England vote for Mr. Grant, were others. But whatever may have been the causes which led to it, a good and true man has been put in nomination.

LYMAN TRUMBULL,

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM ILLINOIS.

WHILE the Western States, or rather those of the Mississippi valley, have usually sent men to the Senate who were educated to the legal profession, it has generally been the case that they were those to whom the law had been, for the most part, a stepping-stone to political preferment, rather than men profoundly versed in the higher principles of law, men of judicial mind, and those who had for years presided with dignity and ability over the highest courts. Illinois is one of the few exceptions to this general rule. Judge Trumbull, one of her Senators, had a wide reputation as a jurist for years before he was chosen to a place in the Senate.

LYMAN TRUMBULL was born in Colchester, Connecticut, October 12, 1813. He is of an excellent lineage, being from one of the collateral branches of a family which has given three governors to Connecticut, one of them the "Brother Jonathan" of the Revolution, and has had its full share of eminent men in all departments of public life. Colchester, Mr. Trumbull's birthplace, has been, for three-fourths of a century, famous for the excellence of its academy, within whose walls hundreds, if not thousands, of distinguished men have received their early education. Here Mr. Trumbull acquired his English and classical training, and about the year 1834 went to Georgia, and engaged in teaching, meanwhile studying law. He was admitted

to the bar in Georgia, we believe, in 1836, and soon after removed to Illinois. A close and eager student of his profession, he soon began to attract notice, and found himself in possession of a large and growing practice in the young and thriving city of Chicago. In 1840, he was sent to the State Legislature, and, in 1841 and 1842, was elected Secretary of State. But local politics were not to his taste, and for the six years following he devoted himself with the utmost assiduity to his profession, in which his extensive attainments, and the calm, comprehensive view which he took of his cases, perceiving and meeting beforehand the points which his opponents would make, had given him a high rank. In 1848, he was chosen justice of the Supreme Court of Illinois, and presided in that court, with extraordinary ability, for five years.

At the election, in November, 1854, Judge Trumbull was elected a Representative in Congress from the first Congressional district (Cook county) to the XXXIVth Congress. At the assembling of the Legislature in the following January, the Republicans, who were in a majority in both branches of the Legislature, were to elect a United States Senator in place of General James Shields, whose term expired on the 4th of March ensuing. Two candidates seemed to have a nearly equal following, viz.: Abraham Lincoln, of Springfield, and Lyman Trumbull, of Chicago. The State had been revolutionized and carried for the Republican party through Mr. Lincoln's influence; but preferring the triumph of his principles to a personal victory, he magnanimously withdrew from the canvass, and brought his friends to support Judge Trumbull. The judge took his seat in the Senate in December, 1855, and so fully satisfied were the people with his conduct, that he was re-elected in 1861, and again in 1867.

Senator Trumbull is of a somewhat cold temperament, and

though from conviction a Republican, he was conservative in his tendencies. In the last session of the XXXVIth Congress —December, 1860, to March, 1861—he opposed secession with decision and firmness, yet advocated conciliation; and though he did not believe the Constitution needed amending, he was ready to vote for a convention to consider amendments. Fortunately for the cause of freedom, and unquestionably controlled in this by him who causes "the wrath of man to praise him," the southern leaders were not to be coaxed or soothed. They were determined on war, believing that through it they should obtain the complete ascendancy; and, as one of them said, they would not have staid in the Union if they could have had *carte blanche* to dictate their own terms.

The temporary weakness which had caused the knees of some of the Republicans to smite together, and made them willing to accede to what would have been disgraceful compromises, passed away, and when the shock came, and war was actually begun, they stood shoulder to shoulder, and wondered at their own firmness. Mr. Trumbull had never been particularly timid, but his whole feelings were averse to war, and he had hoped to prevent it. Yet when it came, he was firm and true. In the new Senate, he was chairman of the Judiciary Committee, of which he had been, from his entrance into the Senate, a member, and he acted with judgment and promptness in bringing forward such measures as the occasion demanded. On the 24th of July, 1861, Mr. Trumbull moved, as an amendment to the confiscation bill, then under consideration, a provision "that whenever any person, claiming to be entitled to the service or labor of any other person, under the laws of any State, shall employ said person in aiding or promoting any insurrection, or in resisting the laws of the United States, or shall permit him to be so employed, he shall forfeit all right to such service or labor, and the

person whose labor or service is thus claimed, shall be thenceforth discharged therefrom, any law to the contrary notwithstanding." This amendment and the confiscation act passed the Senate, but was opposed in the House, and after long discussion, a substitute for it, proposed by Mr. Bingham, embodying the same principle, but more definite in its details, was passed. When this was returned to the Senate, Mr. Trumbull moved a concurrence with the House, and the amended bill was then passed. This was, for the time, a bold move on the part of Mr. Trumbull, though such has been the progress of opinion since that time, that it seems very weak and timid to us.

As the war progressed, his faith, like that of most of his party, in the eventful triumph of universal freedom, grew stronger; and, throughout the war, he was found in the front rank, with Sumner and Wilson and Wade and Harlan, in the development and advocacy of measures looking to the overthrow of slavery, and the protection of the wards of the nation. He advocated and defended the Emancipation Proclamation, sustained the act suspending the habeas corpus, reported the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution in the form in which it finally passed, (abolishing slavery throughout the Union,) defended the first Freedmen's Bureau bill, and attached to it an amendment providing for permanent confiscation of rebel property; drew up, or materially modified, the second and third Freedmen's Bureau bills, matured and presented the Civil Rights bill, and devoted much labor and time to the perfecting and advocacy of the reconstruction acts.

In the trial of President Johnson, on the articles of impeachment presented by the House of Representatives, in February, 1868, Senator Trumbull, as one of the Grand Inquest of the nation, before whom the alleged culprit was to be tried, maintained from the first a marked reticence, and though often importuned in regard to his future action gave such vague and mysterious responses that

he was claimed by both sides. That the President had been guilty of a violation of the spirit of the Constitution and laws, very few doubted; and probably Senator Trumbull was not one of the few who had any doubts on this point. But there was more difficulty in proving him guilty technically of the letter of the law; and Mr. Trumbull at first, perhaps, undecided on this point, at length voted in the President's favor, greatly to the chagrin of many of his party associates. That he did this simply on legal grounds, and not from any wrong or corrupt motive, was patent to every one who knew his purity of character, and his uniform integrity and high moral principle. Yet it brought down upon him at the time a storm of indignation, which resulted in a partial alienation of feeling for years.

Senator Trumbull supported General Grant's election in 1868, but with no great warmth; and during his administration he has maintained generally an independent position. The removal of Mr. Sumner from the chairmanship of the Committee on Foreign Relations roused his indignation, and since that event he has not often acted with the President's friends. In May, 1872, he signified his approval of the Cincinnati Convention, and was one of the prominent candidates of that convention for the Presidency; but the candidacy of Judge Davis, from the same State, having rendered the success of an Illinois candidate impossible, he gracefully withdrew his name, and has given his support most cordially to Messrs. Greeley and Brown.

Senator Trumbull has the reputation of being cold and wanting in sympathy; but those who know him best say that under a somewhat impassive and frigid exterior there beats a very warm and loving heart, one of strong sympathies and passsions.

He is a man of highly cultivated intellect and a decidedly judicial cast of mind. His dignity of manner and his great attainments as a jurist eminently fit him for a prominent position in our highest judicial tribunal.

JOHN SHERMAN.

JOHN SHERMAN, United States Senator from the State of Ohio, comes from the distinguished Connecticut family of Shermans, which was founded by a refugee Roundhead from Essex, England, who brought with him to America, the Puritan politics, courage, and conscience, which sent him into the field as soldier on the popular side in the Civil Wars. The Senator's father, Charles Robert Sherman, a thoroughly educated lawyer, removed from Connecticut to Ohio in 1810, and there became famous first as an advocate, and afterwards as a Judge of the Supreme Court. His professional life and judicial service won the success of eminent reputation and social regard—his generosity and disinterestedness restricted their profits to the maintenance of his large family. When, in 1829, he was stricken upon the bench with a mortal disease and died, he left a widow and eleven children, the oldest eighteen, the youngest an infant—and he left no estate. The boys became somewhat scattered. William Tecumseh, now General Sherman, became by adoption a member of the family of the Hon. Thomas Ewing. John went to Mount Vernon, Ohio, where he was sent to school, and kept steadily and generally under good masters until he was fourteen years old. Then he was sent to the Muskingum Improvement, in part to earn his own support, in part to learn the business of a civil

engineer, and was placed under the care of Colonel Curtis, since General Samuel R. Curtis, the resident engineer of the work The lad's grade in the corps was junior rodman. He was employed two years on this work—the two most valuable years of his education; for in them he learned the methods and forms of business, acquired a habit of working hard and systematically, and became self-reliant. When he was sixteen years old and innocent of all politics, save a boy's idea that Tom Corwin and Tom Ewing were the greatest men in the world, he became the victim of politics, and lost his employment. The Ohio election of 1838 brought the Democratic party into power. The pernicious doctrine the leaders of that party had established, that "to the victors belong the spoils," was applied to the Muskingum Improvement. Colonel Curtis was a Whig. He was turned out in the summer of 1839, and most of his boys were turned out with him, to give place to a Democratic engineer, and to Democratic boys. Sherman was among the discharged. He lost little time in weighing the justice which punished him for other people's politics, and not his own, but after his divorce from his engineering apprenticeship, set himself to thinking how he could accomplish the dream and ambition of his young life—a college education. He went to his brother, Charles T. Sherman, now United States District Judge in Ohio, who was then engaged as a lawyer in Mansfield, Ohio. The collegiate education was discussed in domestic session of the Ways and Means committee, composed of the two brothers, with the family resources all around subject to requisition. It could not be accomplished. John had to give up the idea of a college course. Furthermore, he had to earn his living. It was finally agreed that the best thing to be done was for John to fit himself to be a lawyer as soon as he could, and while he was reading law with Charles, and working in his

office as a clerk, to go to school to his brother in some sense, and study mathematics and the Latin classics under his instruction and direction. The attorney's business of the office of course ran over this, the boy's substitute for a college education, but amid his drudgery as a clerk, and his reading of elementary books of law, he picked up considerable Latin, and read miscellaneously, but, largely of English authors. His four years' novitiate expired while he was thus liberally educating himself, and he was graduated out of his college by a license to practice law, which he obtained on examination the day after he was twenty-one years old. He immediately entered into a co-partnership with his older brother, which lasted for eleven years, and which was active and lucrative for those days and the region of Ohio, and in which John earned a solid reputation as an able, wise, resolute, laborious, honest, and successful lawyer. John rode the circuits; Charles managed the business and counselled in the office.

Like all western lawyers, John Sherman was a politician. He was an ultra Whig by organization and education, and of course was debarred from office in the Democratic district in which he lived. But his talents and character made him the representative of the young politicians of the minority party in his region, and he had been sent while yet in full practice as a lawyer to the Whig National Conventions of 1848 and 1852, and in the latter year was chosen a Presidential elector. Up to that time he had never ran for an office, and neither had hoped for or desired one. But when the Nebraska issue arose in 1854, like a true statesman he felt the necessity for combining all the opposition in the country to the further extension of human slavery, and zealously and laboriously worked to organize a new party without a name, whose mission was to be to check the aggrandisement of the slave power, and

preserve the Republican principles and forms of our Government. He accepted a nominaton to Congress in the XIIIth Ohio district, and greatly to his surprise, in the general political revolution of that year, was elected. The law firm of Charles and John Sherman was now dissolved. Charles drifted into railway enterprises. John was in the current of politics which bore him away forever from his profession. He came into the House of Representatives fully equipped for useful public service—a fluent debater, with a large knowledge of affairs, patient of details, laborious in investigation, with habits of hard work, conciliatory in temper, yet persistent in purpose. He brought with him the reputation of being sound in judgment, sincere in purpose, and superior to personal considerations in the discharge of a public duty. His career was rapidly successful. Its prominent events in the first session of the XXXIVth Congress were his service as one of the Kansas Investigating Committee, and his preparation of the famous Report, which the committee presented to the House of Representatives and the people of the country. He bore a large and influential part in the debates which followed the report. At the close of the session the Republican members of the House, chiefly on the persuasion of Mr. Sherman, adopted the amendment to the Army Bill, denying the validity of the slavery-extending laws of Congress. It is almost certain that if the Republican party had stood upon that declaration as a platform, they would have carried the presidential election that year. The Republicans in the House agreed to do so, and Sherman wrote an address to the people of the United States, elaborating the principle contained in that declaration, which was signed by all the Republican members, but was not promulgated—for Seward and other Senators, under his example

and dissuasion, "backed down," and the Congress adjourned on a Democratic triumph.

The XXXVth Congress was chiefly marked by the long and heated contests, over the Lecompton Constitution, the English Bill, and the defection of Douglas. In these struggles, John Sherman took an active part, and made many and powerful speeches. He was also appointed, and served as chairman of the Naval Investigating Committee, which made a most damaging exposure of the administrative complicity of Buchanan and Toucey, with the crimes and purposes of the slavery propagandists. He made, too, a masterly speech upon the public expenditures, which was widely circulated as a campaign document.

The XXXVIth Congress opened in the House, with the memorable contest for speaker, in which John Sherman was the candidate of the Republicans. On Mr. Pennington's election, he was made chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, and by virtue of that office, the leader of the House of Representatives. He crowned his great and varied labors on this Committee, by putting through the House the beneficent measure on which, more than on any other, the material prosperity of the country rests—the so-called Morrill Tariff. In his best speech of that Congress, delivered in reply to Pendleton in February 1861, he was prophetic in his appreciation of the influences that divided parties, and the result of the conflict which the South was hastening with such arrogant confidence; he declared that war was inevitable, that slavery would be destroyed, that the North would triumph.

Mr. Sherman was elected to the XXXVIIth Congress as a member of the House, but on the resignation by Mr. Chase of his seat in the United States Senate, was chosen, by the Legislature of Ohio, to represent that State in that body. He was put upon

the Finance Committee, made by the war the most important in the organization of the Senate. He introduced the National Bank Bill, and had charge of that almost vital measure, as well as of the Legal Tender Acts, on the floor and in the debates. Among his speeches in this Congress, those which commanded general attention, and were of decisive influence, were the one against the continuance of the State banking system, delivered in January 1863, and the one in favor of the national banks soon after. He also spoke powerfully against slavery in the District of Columbia, and took part in every important debate upon subjects growing out of and connected with the war, and always on the right side. But his labors were chiefly confined to finance and taxation—to providing money and maintaining credit to carry on the war.

In the first session of the XXXIXth Congress Mr. Sherman principally devoted himself to the reduction of the taxes. He also introduced into the Senate the bill to fund the public indebtedness, which, if passed as reported, would, as Jay Cooke has borne witness, have been followed by the beneficial results of the saving of about $20,000,000 of interest per annum, the wider dissemination of the loan among the masses, and the removal of the debt from its present injurious competition with railroad, mercantile, mining, manufacturing, and all the other vital interests of the country. Had the bill been passed as reported, the larger portion of the indebtedness of the United States would now have been funded into a five per cent. loan, and the Treasury and the banks could, in the judgment of the most sagacious financiers in the country, have resumed specie payments by the 1st of July, 1867. Most unfortunately for the public interests, the bill was mutilated in the Senate and defeated in the House. Mr. Sherman, in his funding scheme, and in the speech with which he supported it, completely antici-

pated, and would certainly have avoided the perils and questions that now threaten the national credit. In this session he also opposed strenuously the bill to contract the currency, which has since exercised so mischievous an influence upon the business of the country, and the effect of which he clearly foresaw and pointed out, both on the floor of the Senate and in the committee room. Upon these questions, the funding of the public debt, and the contraction of the currency, Mr. Sherman differed so much from Mr. Fessenden, who was chairman of the Committee on Finance, that subsequent co-operation between them became impossible. In the second session of this Congress, Mr. Sherman spoke and labored in favor of a revised tariff. A patriotic attempt had been made to graduate the duties on foreign goods, so as to equalize the cost of production here and abroad, reference being had to the difference between wages, cost of living, and interest on money,—a patriotic attempt to secure to American working men and women the possession of the American market. Not only in the XXXIXth Congress, but in all the Congresses of which he was a member, John Sherman spoke and voted for the industry of his country. The nation is indebted to him, also, for the substitute for the Reconstruction Bill, which he introduced in the second session of the XXXIXth Congress, and which finally became a law.

The XLth Congress was principally occupied with Reconstruction and the contest between the legislative and executive branches of the Government, which Andrew Johnson forced and pushed to an issue whose only solution was his impeachment and removal from office. Mr. Sherman was chairman of the Senate Finance Committee and, by virtue of the pre-eminent importance of that post, the leader of the Senate. In the second session he reported a new bill for funding the national debt and

converting the notes of the United States—a measure of the greatest consequence. The bill authorized;

1. The sale of 10-40 five per cent. bonds to redeem all outstanding debts.

2. It exempted these bonds from State taxation.

3. It provided for the payment of one per cent. annually of the public debt.

4. It offered to the holders of the 5-20s the option to exchange them for 10-40s at par.

5. It authorized the conversion of legal tenders into bonds, and bonds into legal tenders.

6. It authorized contracts payable in gold.

The proposed measure was received with favor as being just, wise and necessary, by a large portion of the people. It was attacked as a violation of the pledged faith of the Government, and a step towards repudiation, by a class of capitalists and financiers in some of the large cities. Mr. Sherman, in his masterly speech in support of the bill, delivered on the 27th of February 1868, made the following points:

By reducing the rate of interest from six to five per cent., without increasing the volume of greenbacks, we can save to the people of the United States seventeen millions of dollars in gold annually, and neither derange the currency, disorder the money market, nor depreciate our credit:—

Equity and law will be fully satisfied by the redemption of the 5-20 bonds, in the same kind of money received for them, and of the same intrinsic value it bore, when the bonds were issued:—

Every citizen of the United States has conformed his business to the law which made greenbacks a legal tender. He has collected and paid his debts according to it. And every State in the Union, without exception, has, since the legal tender act

was passed, made its contracts in currency and paid them in currency :—

The wide discrimination now made between the bondholder and the noteholder, gives rise to popular clamor and is the cause of great and just complaint :—

No privilege should be granted to the bondholder that is not granted to the noteholder. Both the bond and the note are public securities, and both equally appeal to the public faith:—

No privilege should be given to the bondholder unless it is compensated for by some advantage reserved to the Government :—

The whole public debt should be made to assume such form that it may be a part of the circulating capital of the country, bearing as low a rate of interest as is practicable, and having only such exemptions as will maintain it at par with gold :—

This funding process will give increased value to the United States notes—under it both notes and bonds will gradually rise, step by step, until they reach the standard of gold—the provision indeed is the most rapid way to specie payment.

Mr. Sherman in this speech also drew from British and American history five striking precedents to recommend and sanction the measure he had reported from the Finance Committee. The rate of interest on portions, or the whole of the public debt of England, was reduced by act of Parliament in 1715 from 6 per cent. to 5 per cent.—in 1725 from 5 per cent. to 4 per cent.—in 1749 from 4 per cent. to 3½ per cent., and subsequently, by the same act, to 3; and in 1822 from 5 per cent. on exchequer navy bills to a 4 per cent. annuity. Alexander Hamilton, the first Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, funded, by authority of Congress, the combined public debt of the nation and the revolutionary war debts of the several States, by offering the fundholders 6 per cent. bonds

for two thirds of their debt, 3 per cent. bonds for the other third, and by giving public lands for some of it, and annuities for some. The bondholders and government creditors who would not accept this offer, got but 4 per cent. interest on the debt they held, 2 per cent. less than they were entitled to under the law creating the debt. The nation at the time sustained the arrangement as reasonable, fair, and for the best.

Mr. Sherman closed his speech on his Funding Bill with these noteworthy words:

"I say the plan now proposed by the Committee on Finance is in accordance with precedents, holds out no threats, deals with all alike, holders of five-twenty bonds, greenbacks, and all. It gives them a proposition to fund their debt at their own option by the 1st of November next, or if they will not choose to do it, then, as a matter of course, the question is to be decided at the next session of Congress, what provision ought to be made, whether or not Congress will redeem the five-twenty bonds in the currency in which they were contracted or postpone its redemption, paying the interest at six per cent. in gold, until we can redeem the principal in gold.

"*If this offer is rejected, I will not hesitate to vote to redeem maturity bonds in the currency in existence when they were issued and with which they were purchased, carefully complying, however with all the provisions of law as to the mode of payment, and as to the amount of currency outstanding.*"

With the decline in the value of gold in 1868 and subsequent years, and the sounder views in regard to our obligations to the foreign holders of our national debt which became prevalent after the National Conventions of 1868, these plausible but fallacious theories in regard to its payment in greenbacks, which had been a favorite hobby with the Ohio and some other political leaders of both parties, were finally abandoned, and we suppose that Mr. Sherman himself would hardly care to recall at the

present time the earnestness with which he formerly advocated them. But except this slight, and as it turned out inconsequential, departure from the principles of a high and broad statesmanship, there is nothing in Mr. Sherman's record to be ashamed of. He has, during his last senatorial term, which expires in March, 1873, maintained his old reputation as an efficient and faithful worker; has materially aided Secretary Boutwell in forwarding measures for the funding at lower rates of interest the Five-Twenty bonds, and the paying off of the National Debt. He has taken no active or prominent part in the violent and unseemly controversies of the last year, but in general supports President Grant.

John Sherman is very tall, erect, exceedingly spare, brown-haired, gray-eyed, has a large head, high and square in front, has firm square jaws, a large mouth, with thin lips, expressing in an uncommon degree decision, firmness, and self-control, but betraying his emotional nature, which is tender and sympathetic. He speaks without effort, without hesitation, with great rapidity, wholly free from effort at display, and without a single trick of oratory or any self-conscious mannerism.

In debate he is greatly animated, and shoots his statements and reasoning straight at his mark. He commands the undivided attention of the Senate when he speaks, and his words always carry weight, and generally produce conviction. His life is pure; his personal and political history are without spot or blemish.

CARL SCHURZ,

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM MISSOURI

CARL SCHURZ'S life has been one of action, adventure, and romance. Born March 2d, 1829, at Libler, near the city of Cologne, Germany, he pursued a full course of studies at the gymnasium of that city, and, in 1846, became a student of the great University at Bonn, where he applied himself with fervor to the study of the ancient classics, history, and philosophy. In the political outbreak of 1848, he shared in the prevailing agitation, and having become intimate with Gottfried Kinkel, Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Bonn, was concerned with him in the publication of a paper of ultra-liberal views, and which, during Kinkel's absence as a member of the Prussian Legislature, was edited wholly by Schurz. In the Spring of 1849, the two friends made an attempt to originate an insurrection in the town of Bonn, but failed and were obliged to make their escape, seeking refuge in the Palatinate, where a body of the revolutionists had already organized.

Schurz entered the military service as adjutant, and shared in the defence of Radstadt. On the conquest of that fortress, he sought safety in flight, and concealing himself for three days and nights without food, finally escaped through a sewer, made his way across the Rhine, and succeeded in reaching Switzerland about the beginning of August, 1849, remaining in seclusion at Zurich

until the following May. His friend, Kinkel, meanwhile, had been captured, tried, condemned to a twenty years' imprisonment, and incarcerated in the fortress of Spandau. Schurz conceived the bold idea of releasing him from durance vile, and after a long correspondence with Kinkel's wife, secretly returned to Germany, at great risk to himself, and spent much time at Cologne, and three months at Berlin, engaged in unremitting attempts to establish friendly relations with the guards and others who were brought in contact with the prisoner. The actual attempt at rescue was made November 6th, 1850, when Kinkel's cell was broken open, he was brought out to the roof, and from thence lowered to the ground, and spirited away.

The boldness of the scheme was its success; although the Government, with little probability, was thought to have winked at it. The fugitives found their way across the frontier to Mecklenburg, thence to Rostock, where, after some time spent in concealment, they took passage on a small schooner, in December, to Leith. Schurz then established himself in Paris, finding employment as correspondent of some of the German newspapers, until June, 1851, when he removed to London, and pursued the vocation of a teacher until July, 1852. In that year, having married, he came to America, remaining for some three years in Philadelphia, during which time he devoted his attention largely to political, historical and legal studies, then, after a short visit to Europe, he settled in the practice of the law at Madison, Wisconsin. As might have been expected, from the natural bias of his mind, and the associations of his earlier years, he found in American politics a congenial field for the exercise of his talents, and in the Presidential canvass of 1856, he became famous in the Western country as an orator among the Germans, wielding among them a very powerful influence, in behalf of Republican principles. In 1857, he was nominated by the

State Republican Convention as Lieutenant-Governor of the State, but was defeated at the polls. In 1858, on the occasion of the contest between Douglas and Lincoln, for the United States Senatorship of Illinois, he delivered his first public speech in English, which was widely republished in the newspapers of the land. He developed abilities of a high order, as a politician and orator, and his speech on "Americanism," at Faneuil Hall, as also at the Jefferson celebration at Boston, in the spring of 1859, added largely to his reputation. Meanwhile, he had taken up his residence at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and was engaged in legal practice. During the winter of 1859-60, he was in demand as a lyceum lecturer in New England; and his speech on "Senator Douglas' Ideas and Policy," delivered in Springfield, Massachusetts, attracted much attention. In 1860, he was a Delegate to the Republican National Convention, in which he swayed great influence, especially in the framing of that portion of the platform which related to citizens of foreign birth. During the Presidential canvass which followed, he led a life of ceaseless activity, haranguing the people in the Northern States, both in the German and English languages; his principal speeches, as rated by their eloquence and popular effect, being that delivered at St. Louis, on "The Irrepressible Conflict," and one entitled "The Indictment Against Douglas," spoken in New York city.

There is no doubt that Mr. Schurz's efforts contributed very largely to the success of the Republican ticket, and his services were appropriately acknowledged in his appointment as Minister to Spain, by President Lincoln, shortly after his inauguration. But the outbreak of the war, at this juncture, led him to resign the appointment in order to take a share in the military service of his adopted country. Circumstances, however, seemed to overrule his wishes, and he went to Madrid, where he represented

the United States until December, 1861. Immediately upon his return from abroad he threw himself with characteristic energy into the work of aiding the Government; and, among other notable efforts, delivered, at New York, March 6th, 1862, a speech on "The Necessity of Abolishing Slavery, as a Means of Restoring the National Unity," which struck the key-note of the future action of the Lincoln Administration in its dealings with Secession, and has been justly regarded as one of the finest of his oratorical displays.

April 15th, 1862, he was appointed a Brigadier-General of volunteers, and March 14th, 1863, was promoted to the Major Generalship. He was assigned to the command of a division under General Sigel, distinguishing himself at the second Bull Run battle, August, 1862. At Chancellorsville his division of the eleventh corps was panic stricken by the attack of Stone wall Jackson, and was routed in spite of his attempts to rally it. He succeeded, however, in reforming it, and though in reserve for the next two days, its conduct was creditable. At Gettysburg, where not only his own division, but the eleventh corps was temporarily under his command, General Schurz and his soldiers retrieved fully their former reputation; no troops in the army behaving with more steadiness and no commander being more conspicuous for bravery. In the early autumn of 1863, General Schurz and his division formed a part of the eleventh corps, which, under the command of General Howard were sent West to reënforce the Army of the Cumberland. He took part in the battles around Chattanooga, and distinguished himself there as he had done in the East. On the reorganization of the Western Army, under General Sherman, General Schurz resigned, and returned to Milwaukee, from whence he soon removed to Detroit, Michigan.

At the conclusion of the war, General Schurz was appointed

by President Johnson Commissioner to visit the South and examine and report upon the affairs of the Freedmen's Bureau. His report, which was very full and able, displeased the President exceedingly. During a part of 1865-66, he was the Washington correspondent of the *New York Tribune*. In the latter part of 1866, he established the *Detroit Post*, a very able paper, still in existence; but subsequently disposed of it, and removing to St. Louis started the *Westliche Post*, of which he is still part proprietor, and to which he contributes frequently. He was a Delegate to the Republican Convention of May, 1868, at Chicago, of which he was temporary chairman, and a leading spirit, and in the ensuing winter was elected (as a Republican) to the United States Senate, succeeding John B. Henderson. He took his seat March 4th, 1869, and his term expires March 4th, 1875. He is one of the youngest members of the Senate, in which body he has no superior in direct, pointed attack, skilful and graceful vehemence, profound mastery of the great principles of political science, and the wide range of his scholarship. His knowledge of the history of America and Europe is very perfect, and he possesses a wonderful facility in acquiring languages, speaking and writing most of those of Europe, and some of the Oriental tongues.

Few dare meet him in debate, for all are aware that he is thoroughly equipped for the conflict, and that the force which he holds in reserve would readily render all their efforts futile. Though quiet, and apparently cold in manner to the superficial observer, there is in him a depth of feeling, an earnestness of patriotism, and a heartiness of friendship which make him a very earnest friend, as he is a stern and unrelenting enemy.

At the Chicago Convention of May, 1868, he was very active in promoting General Grant's election; but he early became dissatisfied with his course, and became identified with the bolting party in Missouri, in their advocacy of free-trade and a universal

amnesty. In the Senate, while ever courteous, he has for some time past been conspicuous for the severity and eloquence of his attacks on the Administration. The sale of arms to France was investigated at his instigation and that of Senator Sumner.

By the North German statesmen, Senator Schurz is pleasantly remembered, and his career has been eagerly watched by them. When he ran for the Senate against Henderson and Ben Loan, it is said that old Baron Gerolt, the Prussian Minister at Washington, appeared for the only time in his life in that city, on "Newspaper Row," sanguine to get points in favor of his friend.

The Senator is on friendly terms with Prince von Bismarck, and takes a deep interest in all that concerns the Fatherland; but he is too fully aware of the grand opportunities which our country offers to a man of great gifts and abilities, to desire ever to return to Germany as a residence. "America," he says, with emphasis, "is my country, and here is to be my future."

Senator Schurz is now in the prime of manhood, forty-three years of age, tall, slender, but of graceful figure, and broad shoulders. He is very near sighted, wears spectacles constantly, and in his air and bearing combines the soldier and the scholar. Though not rich, he possesses a competence, and has that best of all wealth, an accomplished and excellent wife, to whom he is devotedly attached, and beautiful and intelligent children, who inherit the fondness of both parents for study. A volume of the Senator's orations and addresses was published in 1865.

OLIVER PERRY MORTON.

OLIVER PERRY MORTON was born in Wayne county, Indiana, on the 4th of August, 1823, and, becoming an orphan while yet very young, was placed under the care of his grandmother and two aunts, living in Hamilton county, Ohio. In early youth he served for awhile with a brother in the hatter's trade, but, in 1839, was placed at school in his native county, under the tuition of Professor S. K. Hoshour, then principal of the Wayne county seminary, and now a professor in the Northwestern Conference university, at Indianapolis. His honored instructor says of him, at this period of his life, "If some knowing genius had then suggested to me that the future governor, par excellence, of Indiana, was then in the group around me, I would probably have sought him in a more bustling form, with brighter eyes and a more marked head than Oliver's. But time has shown that in him was the *mens sana in corpore sano*, which the college, the acquisition of jurisprudence, legal gymnastics at the bar, the political crisis of the past, and the present exigencies of the nation, have fully developed, and now present him the man for the most responsible position in the gift of a free people." After leaving the seminary, young Morton entered Miami university, at Oxford, Ohio, where he appears under a more favorable guise, as the star member of the Beta Theta Pi society, and the best debater in the college. Leaving the university without graduating, he

went to Centreville, Indiana, and began the study of law with the Hon. John S. Newman, bending all his energies to the thorough acquisition of his profession. In 1845, he married Miss Lucinda M. Burbank, of Centreville, a lady of rare intelligence and refinement, whose untiring and benevolent efforts, during the recent war of the civil rebellion, for the relief of the Indiana volunteers, have honored both herself and her husband.

Admitted to the bar in 1846, Mr. Morton soon took a front rank as a jurist and advocate, commanding, by his natural and acquired abilities, a large and lucrative practice. In the spring of 1852, he was elected circuit judge, acquiring among his fellow-members of the bar, as well as in the public estimation, a high reputation for thoroughness and fairness. When, in the spring of 1854, the Democratic party, of which he had always been a member, repealed the Missouri compromise and passed the Kansas-Nebraska bill, he promptly seceded from the party, and thenceforth co-operated with the Republican party in its efforts to stay the spread of slavery and slave territory. Yet on the subject of free trade, internal improvements, etc., he remained essentially in harmony with this old party, nor did he repudiate these principles in his departure from the Democracy, or in his acceptance of the nomination for the governorship of Indiana, which was tendered to him, in 1856, by acclamation. Having consented to head the Republican State ticket, he accompanied his Democratic competitor—Ashbel P. Willard—in a vigorous and thorough canvass of the entire State, doing noble work, wherever he went, for the cause of Republicanism. Yet, although he was defeated, the large vote which he received, considering the many difficulties under which he labored, and the youth of his party in the State, was justly to be considered a victory. From this time forward, Morton's character seemed to develop into new strength and harmony, and the superiority of

his mental organization became more generally acknowledged. From the end of this campaign, however, to the commencement of that of 1860, he asked no honors of his party, but was content to labor, energetically and constantly, for the promotion of its success. His sound judgment and eminently practical mind gave him new influence in political councils, where he was acknowledged as the best of engineers and an authority as a framer of policy. The Republican party in Indiana, from its inception to 1860, owes its advancement largely to his untiring zeal, wise counsels, and personal influence.

When that important campaign opened, Mr. Morton's name again appeared on the Republican ticket as nominee for lieutenant-governor, "for reasons which were, at that time, supposed to have some weight, but which have since faded so completely that it seems almost incredible that he was ever thought of for so inferior a position." Again he plunged into the canvass of the State with that vigor of intellect and body which few men possess, in an equal degree, showing a scope of view and a concise, but logical, method of statement and argument which rendered him unanswerable by his Democratic opponents, and which entitled him to the front rank of expounders of the Republican doctrines. The Republican ticket in Indiana, as in all the Northern States, was successful, and, on the 14th day of January, 1861, he was duly qualified as lieutenant-governor, and took his seat as president of the Senate. He occupied this position but two days, when, in consequence of the election, by the Legislature, of the governor elect—Hon. Henry S. Lane—to the Senate for a six-years' term, he became Governor of Indiana, and took the oath of office. Upon assuming the executive chair, Governor Morton found the public interests in a critical condition. Under previous loose, corrupt administrations, the public treasury had been depleted by wanton extravagance and

official peculation, the sinking fund had been miserably mismanaged, and a regular system of frauds had been carried on by State and county officers in the disposition of the swamp lands, until the credit of the State abroad was so much impaired that she had become a borrower to pay her debts, and was, literally, "a by-word among her own citizens." The new governor set himself earnestly to work to bring order out of confusion, to renovate the different departments of government, to replenish a depleted treasury and to redeem the credit of the State. He inaugurated a new era of honesty, economy, and good financial management, which saved the State many millions of dollars, and rescued her name from infamy and distrust.

But a new and still more threatening danger was to be averted from his beloved "Hoosier State." The gathering cloud of disunion and civil war hung over the country, and it became evident that Indiana was afflicted with so large a share of disloyalty, that the advocates of secession even confidently counted upon material aid from her, in the shape of men and arms, in their proposed treasonable designs. Governor Morton was determined, however, that this scarce concealed treason should be nipped "in the bud," and to commit his State fully and unequivocally on the side of freedom and loyalty. Early in the spring of 1861, he visited the President at Washington, and assured him, that if he pursued a vigorous policy, he could pledge him at least six thousand Hoosiers for the defence of the Union. When, at length, in April, the attack upon Sumter had both startled and fired the northern heart, and the President issued his call for seventy-five thousand troops—Indiana's quota being fixed at six regiments, of seven hundred and fifty men each—Governor Morton issued a proclamation, which, in *eight days*, rallied over twelve thousand men to the defence of the national flag. The first six regiments marched promptly

forward to the field, attracting at all points general admiration and surprise at the perfection of their equipment; and Governor Morton's efficiency was held up as an incentive for other State executives to follow in nearly all the northwestern States; and hardly had these first troops reached the field, before the ever-thoughtful governor sent agents to follow their footsteps, attend to their wants, and see that all their little needs were supplied while in health, and that they were properly cared for when sick. With Governor Morton, indeed, may be said to have originated the plan of sending State agents to visit and care for troops in the field; and, throughout the war, his agents uniformly distanced those of all other States. A few days after, the governor tendered an additional six regiments to the President. His message to the Legislature, which he had called in extra session, was full of determined and lofty patriotism. Laying aside all party prejudices, he required only loyalty and capacity as the necessary qualifications for positions of influence; and so great, indeed, was the liberality shown by him to the Democracy, as to arouse the jealousy of the Republicans, who criticised his course with much severity during this special session.

Meanwhile, the neighboring State of Kentucky was in a very precarious state. Its governor, Magoffin (at heart a secessionist), was endeavoring not only to play into the hands of the South by preventing Kentucky from joining the hosts of freedom, but to draw Indiana, Ohio, and other northern border States also into their power, by inducing them to hold a position of neutrality, and assume the character of sovereign mediators between Government and the seceded States. Governor Morton, however, was not deceived by this specious plea of neutrality. He firmly rejected all propositions to that effect from Governor Magoffin; and, desirous of keeping Kentucky "in

the Union," he dispatched thither numbers of his own secret agents, by whom he was promptly advised of the plans and operations of the secessionists in every part of that State. On the 16th of September, 1861, Governor Morton received from one of these agents, information of Zollicoffer's advance into Kentucky, to a point some fourteen miles beyond the Tennessee line, and of a corresponding advance by Buckner's rebel force towards Louisville. The governor promptly countermanded an expedition under General Rousseau, which was just starting for St. Louis, and ordered the force to cross the Ohio into Kentucky—at the same time hastening every available man in Indiana, to the defence of Louisville, the safety of which was thus assured beyond a doubt.

Fully convinced, now, that Kentucky's neutrality was at an end, and that her soil was actually invaded by the rebels, Governor Morton withdrew his secret agents, and, appealing to his Hoosiers for help, to redeem the sister State from the enemy, he sent forward regiment after regiment into Kentucky, and before many months had passed, the Federals held Bowling Green, Zollicoffer was killed, his troops defeated at Mill Spring, and the soil of Kentucky cleared of rebels. This generous conduct endeared the governor to the Unionists of Kentucky, who virtually adopted him as their governor. We cite an incident in point. "Shortly after Kentucky was cleared of rebel troops, a very wealthy lady of Frankfort, the owner of a large number of slaves, visited some friends in Indianapolis, and on the second day of her visit inquired for Governor Morton Upon ascertaining that he was absent, and would not return for several days, she prolonged her visit somewhat beyond the time she had intended to remain. The day for the governor's return having arrived, and he not appearing, the lady extended her visit still several days more, saying she would not leave In-

dianapolis until she had seen him. A friend inquiring of her the reason why she was so anxious to see the Hoosier governor, she replied, "Because he is *our* governor, as well as yours, and has been ever since the beginning of the rebellion." And we are reminded, also, of the Indiana soldier, who interposed to stop an angry altercation in the streets of Frankfort, Kentucky, as to whether *Magoffin* (de facto), or *Johnson* (provisional), was governor of Kentucky, by the remark—"Hold on, gentlemen, you are all mistaken. I will settle this controversy. Neither of your men is governor of Kentucky, but *Governor Morton, of Indiana, is governor of Kentucky,* as his soldier-boys, with their blue coats and Enfield rifles, will soon show you."

Despite the discouraging impressions produced upon the public mind, by the reverses to the national arms in the fall of 1861, twenty volunteer regiments were added to the twenty-four Indiana regiments already in the field by the end of the year, a result of the ever-constant fidelity of Governor Morton in following the absent troops, securing their pay, attending to their personal wants, and providing for their families at home. But the same energy and fraternal care which inspired confidence in the volunteers, also excited envy and detraction at home, among a certain class of ambitious politicians and traitors to the national cause. Charges of mismanagement in State military matters, of corruption in official appointments and the awarding of contracts, became so frequent that, finally, in December, 1861, a Congressional Committee of Investigation visited Indianapolis, at the urgent and frequently repeated request of the governor, and instituted a rigid examination of the management of the military affairs of the State. Their published report not only vindicated Governor Morton from all blame, but developed, in the most incontestable manner, his care to prevent fraud, peculation, and waste. It has been well

said of him, at this period, that, "as the war progressed, and the execution of all plans proposed by him resulted successfully, he rose in the estimation of the President and Cabinet, until it was finally admitted by the knowing ones at Washington, that his influence with the powers at that city was greater than that of any other man, outside of the national executive department, in the country. His thorough knowledge of the people of the northwest, his ready tact in adapting means to ends, his great forecasting and combining powers, and above all his energy and promptness in the performance of all labor assigned him, secured to him a deference which few men in the nation enjoyed; and more than once was his presence requested, and his counsel solicited, in matters of the greatest importance to the Government."

The depression of the public mind during the winter of 1861–62, seemed only to rouse Governor Morton to still greater resolutions and endeavors; and by his indefatigable exertions, six regiments, by the last of February, 1862, were added to the number of those already in the service. About the commencement of the year, a wide-spread and formidable western conspiracy, in aid of the Southern Rebellion, was discovered to exist in most of the loyal States, known, in some places, as the "Star in the West," in others, as the "Self Protecting Brothers," "Sons of Liberty," etc., but most generally, as "The Order of American Knights," in affiliation with the southern society of "Knights of the Golden Circle." The order became quite popular in the southern counties of Indiana, and its members were especially virulent in denunciation of the administration, the "abolition war," and Governor Morton. Against him they especially charged, with a persistence which seemed to be proof against repeated denials, that he was instrumental in procuring the imposition, by Congress, of oppressive taxation; and,

also, corruption in the appointment of the first State quartermaster-general; notwithstanding, in relation to the first charge, that he had by good engineering so managed, that Indiana's share of this taxation had been "offset" by the sum due to the State, by the General Government, for advances made by the former in equipping the Indiana volunteers, etc., and in regard to the quartermaster, ignoring the fact, that that able officer, as well as many to whom he had given the best contracts, belonged to the Democratic party. More than this, also, they had the meanness to accuse Governor Morton of appropriating, secretly, to his own use, the county and personal donations made to soldiers in camp; although, the governor, as was well known, had borrowed on his own responsibility $600,000, with which he had paid bounties to regiments, which had refused to obey marching orders, unless they received the money.

Indiana, indeed, at the commencement of the year 1863, was in a most precarious condition. Secret enemies had succeeded, by the most unscrupulous means, in securing the election, on what was familiarly known as the "butternut ticket," of a Legislature principally composed of men determinedly opposed to the prosecution of the war, and who had deliberately sought seats in that body for the purpose of thwarting all loyal effort, and encouraging the cause of rebellion. These men, from the first, evinced a fixed determination to insult the executive of the State, deprive him of all power, and seize in their own hands the entire control of every department of the State government. On the second day of the session, the Senate received from the governor the usual biennial message, and ordered it to be printed; but the House refused to receive it, returned it to the governor, and passed a resolution receiving and adopting the message of the Governor of New York. Beginning its legislative career with this deliberate insult to the executive, it continued, during

its session of fifty-nine days, to pursue its revolutionary policy with increased violence, and an open disregard of constitutional obligations, and even of ordinary decency. Occupying its time chiefly with the introduction of disloyal resolutions and the utterance of factious and treasonable sentiments, which were calculated to incite the people to resistance to Government, all the necessary and legitimate subjects of legislation were disregarded or kept back; and, during the entire session, with a quorum in each House, every appropriation was suppressed until the last day, (when it was known that a quorum could not be had in the House,) except that for their own per diem and mileage, which was passed on the first day of the session.

This dastardly conduct, of course, burdened Governor Morton and the loyal officers of the State government with an immense load of responsibility. The benevolent institutions, the State arsenal, the soldiers in the field and hospital, the soldiers' families at home, the pay due the "Legion" for services at various times in repelling invasion on the border, the corps of special surgeons, military claims, the State debt, and the numerous other important measures and objects requiring prompt and liberal appropriations, were left utterly unattended to—although there was money enough in the treasury—by a set of men who did not forget to draw their own pay and mileage, and appropriate nearly $20,000 to the State printer.

But the governor was nothing daunted by this disgraceful and perplexing state of affairs. Believing that to close the asylums would be a shame and a disgrace—a crime against humanity itself—and that to call back the Legislature, after their dastardly conduct of the previous session, would be not only useless but perilous to the peace and the best interests of the State, he established a bureau of finance, and so great a degree of success attended his efforts in obtaining money that he was enabled suc-

cessfully to carry on all the institutions of the State, and keep the machinery of government in motion, until the next regular meeting of the Legislature.

On the 20th of July, 1863, Governor Morton, being in Cincinnati, Ohio, received the compliment of a request from the common council of that city, that he would sit for his portrait, to be hung in the City Hall, as a fitting remembrance of the indebtedness felt by the citizens to him for his services during the war. On the 23d of February, 1864, the Union State Convention placed his name at the head of the Union ticket for 1864. It was with the commencement of this campaign "that the great work of Governor Morton's life began; a work more varied and arduous than, perhaps, was ever undertaken by any other State executive." The "Democratic" Legislature of 1863 had, with the aid of the State officers of that period, surrounded him with such embarrassments that the performance of his civil functions was a most difficult and complicated task. Frequent calls for new levies of troops, the organization of regiments, and their preparation for the field, greatly increased his military labors. The wants of the sick and wounded soldiers at the front were daily multiplying, and thousands of dependent families at home had to be supported. The governor's well-known superiority in council, the ability which marked the success which attended his plans and measures, induced frequent demands for his presence at Washington. And yet, not only were these duties—civil and military, official and extra-official—not neglected, but they were performed with a readiness, skill and completeness which marked Governor Morton as one of the most extraordinary men of his times, and covered the name of Indiana with glory. In addition to all this, he gave his own personal attention to the campaign, delivering frequent speeches, which were powerful, and productive of incalculable good. Towards

the close, also, of the campaign, the atrocious designs of the "Sons of Liberty" seemed about to culminate in open revolt and anarchy. Over eighty thousand members, as was afterwards proved, existed in the State, thoroughly armed, waiting for the signal, to rise at the polls on election day, and Governor Morton's life was especially marked. But he was prepared for the emergency; his secret detectives were operating in every part of the State, and by their dexterity, the executive was constantly and promptly advised of all the schemes and designs of the conspirators. He possessed the knowledge of their financial resources, their military force and plans, their places of rendezvous, their purchases of arms, and, through his agents, was "on hand" at every point, to foil every move, break up every plot, and suppress every incipient outbreak of disloyalty. Yet he wisely deferred any open, complete exposure of the "Sons of Liberty" until after the election, when a military court of inquiry was convened, before which the Indiana ringleaders of treason were tried, convicted and punished. This detective work was the most important of the many signal services rendered to the State by Governor Morton; and not to the State only, but to the Government of the United States itself.

The Governor was re-elected by a sweeping majority, and under the new draft, the men of Indiana sprung promptly forward to the aid of Government. It was no longer—thanks to Governor Morton's labors for the soldiers—a disgrace to belong to an Indiana regiment, and soldiers of other States were frequently heard to say to the "Hoosier boys:" "We wouldn't mind fighting, if we had such a governor as you have."

"During the winter of 1865," says a friend of the governor, "he was the most ubiquitous man in the United States. First at Washington, in council with the President; then at the front, surveying with his own eyes the battle-field; moving in person

through the hospitals, ascertaining the wants of the sick and wounded; supervising the operations of his numerous agents; then at home, directing sanitary movements, appointing extra surgeons and sending them to the field, projecting new plans for the relief of dependent women and children, attending personally to all the details of the business of his office." And, when the war came to a glorious termination, he was the first to welcome the returning heroes to the State capital, where they were sumptuously entertained, at the public expense; promptly furnished with their pay, and sent rejoicing to their homes, with no unnecessary delay—feeling that their governor cared for them, as a father doth for his children. And, then, when the rush of business was over—when, for the first time in five years, he felt in some degree relieved from the immense weight of official responsibility and embarrassment, of gigantic difficulties he had been obliged to combat in placing Indiana in the front rank of loyal States; of his intense and incessant anxiety for the success of the Union cause—then the high strung frame gave way, and in the summer of 1865, he was attacked with paralysis. Accordingly, by the advice of his physicians, he embarked with his family for Italy, followed by the prayers of thousands of loving hearts in Indiana, and by the respect of the nation. After his return to this country, he was elected to the United States Senate, on the Republican ticket, and as the successor of Hon. Henry S. Lane, for the term ending March, 4th, 1873.

In the Senate, though embarrassed and restrained from the active labors he so much desires to perform, by the still feeble condition of his health, the result of those years of overwork, he has yet rendered excellent service to the country he so ardently loves. As a member of the important Committees on Foreign Relations, on Military Affairs, and on Agriculture, his counsels have been of great advantage to the Senate. His

speech on reconstruction, delivered in the winter of 1868, was the most profoundly logical and able argument on that subject delivered in the Senate,—and even the enemies of reconstruction acknowledged its power.

The earnest friend of General Grant, and in the remembrance of his brave and successful leadership of our armies during the war, overlooking his errors of administration, Senator Morton has defended the President and his policy against those who were disposed to criticise it, with a zeal and vigor which recall to those who have long known him, the vehement loyalty of his speeches and labors during the war.

But differ as we may with the Indiana Senator in regard to personal preferences, no one can fail to accord to him a lofty patriotism and great purity and integrity of character.

REUBEN E. FENTON.

SENATOR FENTON is one of the few men who, bred neither to law nor politics, but occupied during early life with mercantile pursuits, have entered later in their career into the political arena, and acquitted themselves so well as to be advanced to, and continued in, high station. Though himself a native of the State of New York, his family, like many others whose record we have given in this volume, are of Connecticut origin. He claims descent from Robert Fenton, a man of note among the settlers of the eastern part of Connecticut, and who was one of the patentees of the town of Mansfield, when that town was set off from Windham, in 1703. During the Revolutionary war, the family was noted for its patriotism, and furnished its full share of soldiers for that great struggle. The grandfather of the Senator, about 1777, removed to New Hampshire, in which State his father was born. In the early part of the present century, Mr. Fenton, then an enterprising young farmer, removed to what is now the town of Carroll, Chautauqua county, New York, then a portion of the Holland land patent, where he purchased a tract of land, and by dint of constant hard work, brought this portion of "the forest primeval" into the condition of a pleasant and profitable farm. Here—July 4, 1819—his son, REUBEN E. FENTON, was born.

Young Fenton's early years were spent upon the paternal homestead, and though an amiable, friendly and popular boy

among his associates, he seems to have developed no remarkable genius or ability in his boyhood. He was somewhat fond of military studies, and in the boyish trainings was uniformly chosen captain, and it was probably owing to this taste that he was chosen colonel of the 162d regiment, New York State militia, before he was twenty-one years of age.

His opportunities for acquiring an education were very limited, but they were well improved. He was a good scholar when he was in the common-school, and when, subsequently, he passed a few terms in different academies, he made rapid progress as a student, and won the approbation of his preceptors for his manly qualities and exemplary deportment. He read law one year, not with the view of going into the profession, but to make himself familiar with the principles and forms of that science, under the impression that this knowledge would be useful to him in whatever business he might engage.

At the age of twenty, he commenced business, with very limited means and under adverse circumstances. But the fact did not discourage him, nor turn him from his purposes. The world was before him, and what others had accomplished, young Fenton resolved should be done by him. He went at his work with all the earnestness and energy of his character, and a few years saw him a successful and prosperous merchant. While in this pursuit, he turned his attention to the lumber trade, as an auxiliary to his mercantile business. He was still a young man when he purchased his first "boards and shingles," and as he floated off upon his fragile raft, valued at less than one thousand dollars, there were not wanting those who wondered at his temerity, and the failure of his enterprise was confidently predicted. But nothing could dampen his ardor. He tied his little raft safely on the shore of the Ohio, near Cincinnati, went into the city found a customer, sold his lumber, and returned to his

home with a pride and satisfaction never excelled in after years, though he went the round with profits tenfold greater. Lumbering became in a few years his principal business; and to such a man, success and competence were but a matter of time. He soon enjoyed the reputation of being the most successful lumberman on the Alleghany and Ohio rivers; but this came only because he wrought it by untiring perseverance and indefatigable energy.

In 1843, Mr. Fenton was chosen supervisor of his native town, and held the position for eight successive years. Three of these eight he was chairman of the board, though the board was two to one Whig, while he was a well-known Democrat. But he was courteous and affable, manly and upright, genial and sensible, and his opponents, by common consent, selected him to preside over their deliberations.

In 1849, his friends nominated him for the assembly, and he came within twenty-one votes of being elected, though the successful candidate was one of the oldest and most popular men in the assembly district, which was strongly Whig.

In 1852, he was put in nomination by the Democrats for Congress, and elected by fifty-two majority, though the district, from the manner in which it was accustomed to vote, should have given at least 3,000 majority against him. He took his seat, on the first Monday in December, 1853, in a House which was Democratic by about two to one. Mr. Douglas, chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, in the course of the session, was beguiled into embodying in a bill which provided for the organization as territories of Kansas and Nebraska, a repeal of that portion of the Missouri compromise of 1820, which forbade the legalization of slavery in any territory of the United States, lying north of north latitude, thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes. Mr. Fenton, with N. P. Banks, and quite

a number of the younger Democrats, with Colonel Thomas H. Benton and other seniors, steadfastly opposed this proposition, and opposed the bill because of it. The bill was nevertheless forced through the House by a vote of 113 to 100, and became a law. In the division that thereupon ensued, Mr. Fenton took Republican ground with Preston King, Ward Hunt, George Opdyke, and other conspicuous Democrats, and he has never since been other than a Republican.

In 1854, the American or Know Nothing party carried his district by a considerable majority (Mr. Fenton consenting to be a candidate on the Saturday previous to election), as they did a good many others in the State; but, in 1856, he ran on the FREMONT ticket, and was elected, and thence re-elected by large and generally increasing majorities down to 1864, when he withdrew, having been nominated for Governor. He thus served five terms in Congress, each as the representative of the strongly Whig district composed of Chautauqua and Cattaraugus counties, which contains many able and worthy men who were in full accord with its by-gone politics, and to the almost unanimous acceptance of his constituents.

Immediately on entering Congress, Mr. Fenton espoused the cause of the soldiers of 1812, and shortly after introduced a bill providing for the payment of the property accounts between the United States and the State of New York, for military stores furnished in the war of 1812. This measure he continued to urge upon the attention of Congress, and finally, on the 30th May, 1860, had the satisfaction to witness its passage in the House by a vote of 98 to 80. He had a leading place on important committees, and performed the duties appertaining to these positions in a manner satisfactory to all. It is but simple truth to say that he was one of the quietly industrious and faithful members of the House. Nor was he a silent representa-

tive. He could talk when there seemed a necessity for speaking. During his Congressional career, he delivered able and effective speeches against the repeal of the Missouri Compromise act; in advocacy of a cheap postal system; the bill to extend invalid pensions; for the improvement of rivers and harbors; to regulate emigration to this country; against the policy of the Democratic party with regard to Kansas; for the final settlement of the claims of the soldiers of the Revolution; in vindication of the principles and policy of the Republican party; on the Deficiency bill; the bill to facilitate the payment of bounties; on the repeal of the Fugitive Slave law; on providing for payment of losses by the rebellion, etc.

Mr. Fenton served in Congress nearly to the end of the war for the Union, of which he was one of the firmest and most efficient supporters. Believing the Union to be right and the rebellion wrong throughout, he gave his best energies to the national cause, voting steadily for taxes, loans, levies, drafts, and for the emancipation policy whereby they were rendered effectual. Men of greater pretensions were abundant in Congress, but there was none more devoted, or more ready to invoke and to make sacrifices for the triumph of the Union.

In the fall of 1862, Mr. Fenton's name was favorably mentioned in connection with the office of governor, but finding General Wadsworth was to be pressed for a nomination, Mr. Fenton promptly withdrew from the canvass, and yielded to the patriot soldier his warmest support. In 1864, Mr. Fenton was designated as the standard-bearer of the Republican party, and chosen governor by a majority considerably larger than Mr. Lincoln's; and two years later, he was unanimously re-nominated, and chosen by an increased majority.

The administration of Governor Fenton commenced at the culminating period of the war, and required the exercise of

industry, method, decision, and the power of discriminating, originating, and executing. He brought to the discharge of his new position all these forces of body and mind, and proved patient amid perplexities, quick in his perceptions, safe in his judgments, mastering toilsome details, and successfully meeting difficult emergencies. His practical training, his wide experience, his luminous intellect and well-disciplined judgment, saved him from the failure that a man of less power might have encountered. His official relations with our soldiers did not weaken the attachments that had given him the honored title of the "soldier's friend." He was prompt to reward merit, and skilful to harmonize differences that often threatened demoralization and serious injury to many of the military organizations then in the field. Upon the return home of the soldiers, Governor Fenton addressed a letter to the war committees of the various districts in the State, in which he suggested the propriety of a hearty and spontaneous welcome to the heroic defenders of the country, on the part of the people of the State—an ovation to demonstrate the gratitude of those whose battles they had so bravely fought.

Governor Fenton's judicious course fully commanded the public confidence and approval, and at the close of the first year of his term, many of the most prominent and influential citizens of New York city addressed him a letter of thanks, promising him their hearty co-operation and support in his efforts to improve the condition and health of the metropolis. A few months later, when he visited New York city, thousands of the best men of New York waited upon him in person, to assure him of their respect and approval of his course.

He found it necessary to veto several bills of the first Legislature which sat after his election, in consequence of their depriving the city of New York of valuable franchises, without

conferring compensating advantages. For these acts, he was thanked publicly, by a resolution of the Board of Supervisors of New York county. Governor Fenton's views upon the political issues which were involved in Mr. Johnson's attempted "policy" were ably expressed, in a letter addressed to the committee of a meeting held to ratify the action of the State Union Convention, in October, 1866, and soon after in a speech delivered at a large political gathering in Jamestown. During the canvass that followed, his opponents were unable to assail any portion of his official record, and his friends proudly pointed to it, as what a patriotic governor's should be.

When, in August, 1866, Mr. Johnson, in the course of his political tour, generally known as "swinging round the circle," visited Albany, a proper regard for the high office he held, required that the governor of the State should proffer its hospitalities to him. Governor Fenton did so in the following brief but dignified address:—

"MR. PRESIDENT:—

"With high consideration for the Chief Magistrate of the Republic, I address you words of welcome in behalf of our citizens and the people of the State whose capital you visit. We extend to you and to your suite, hospitality and greeting, and desire your safe conduct as you go hence to pay honor to the memory of the lamented Douglas,—to the State also distinguished as the home and final resting place of the patriot and martyr, Lincoln.

"I have no power to give due expression to the feelings of this assemblage of citizens, nor to express in fitting terms the respect and magnanimity of the whole people upon an occasion so marked as the coming to our capital and to our homes of the President of the United States. In their name I give assurance to your excellency of their fidelity, patriotism and jealous interest in all that relates to the good order, progress, and freedom of all the States, and of their earnest hope that

peace will soon open up to the people of the whole land new fields of greater liberty, prosperity and power."

The Republican party, in 1866, saw the necessity of selecting wise men for its nominees. The more discerning politicians felt that there was reason to fear an unfavorable result of the canvass. Herculean efforts were being made to defeat the party at the polls. A division had been created among those who had heretofore professed its principles. A number of influential gentlemen openly repudiated its ideas in regard to reconstruction. The Philadelphia Convention had produced a schism, which it was feared might prove formidable, if not disastrous. Those who were the most pronounced in favor of the policy of President Johnson, were the most earnest in their opposition to Governor Fenton. The question naturally arose whether this marked hostility might not prove fatal to success, by stimulating the Conservatives to greater effort, and enabling them to exert more powerful influence over the moderate and doubtful portion of the party; and whether a man less likely to be thus assailed might not be stronger. On the other hand, there was to be considered the effect which the leading measures of his administration had produced on the popular mind. His national policy had contributed in a marked degree to the success of the war. He had entered upon his term of office as successor to one who disapproved of many of the principal features of the war policy of the Government, and who had been elected because of his decided views in relation thereto. He had stimulated volunteering, and secured for the State a more just recognition of its rights; had worked clear from the complications in which the public interest had been involved by the blundering and incompetency of the provost marshal general; and had relieved New York from a large portion of the dreaded burden of the draft. He had done

much, with the co-operation of the head of the State finance department, to originate a financial system which rendered the credit of the State stable and secure, and furnished the means to supply the demands of war, without being felt as oppressive. By his keen appreciation of the wants of the soldiers, his tender solicitude for their welfare, and his earnest efforts in their behalf, he had firmly attached them to himself. In his State policy, he had sought to foster all the material interests of the commonwealth; and had reluctantly interposed to the defeat of needed enterprises when their aid would render the burden of taxation onerous, and awaited a more favorable opportunity to join in giving them that aid. He was vigilant in his attention to the commercial wants of the State, both in the great metropolis and through its extensive lines of transit. This unwavering devotion to the essential prosperity of the State, elicited confidence and commendation. All the discriminating judgment and forecast of the statesman had been displayed in a marked degree. These views were impressed on the minds of the representative men of his party, and when the Convention assembled, so strongly did they prevail, and so heavily did they outweigh adverse considerations, that no other name was suggested, and he was unanimously nominated by acclamation. The Democrats entered upon the canvass full of hope. Prominent places were given by them, on the State ticket, to Republicans who dissented from the principles enunciated by the Republican party, and nominations of a like character were made for many local offices in various portions of the State. The result showed that Governor Fenton's strength had not been miscalculated. He was re-elected by a majority five thousand larger than that given him in his first canvass.

The year 1867 furnished the occasion for a continuation of a

policy which had proved so acceptable, and it is not necessary that we should dwell upon its features.

The absence of all malevolence in the heart of Governor Fenton, and the broad charity of his nature, were displayed during that year. The remains of the rebel dead had been left unburied at Antietam. A letter from Governor Fenton, breathing the spirit of loyalty and humanity, decided the committee at once to an act both Christian and proper, and in accordance with the spirit of the law of Maryland, which authorized the purchase of a cemetery, and created a corporation to carry out the declared object of burying in it, all who fell on either side during the invasion of Lee at the battle of Antietam. In that letter he took the high ground that it "was a war less of sections than of systems," and that the nation could confer decent burial on the southern dead while condemning and sternly opposing the heresies for which they had sacrificed themselves; and that attachment to the Union and devotion to the most thorough measures for its preservation and restoration were not inconsistent with the broadest charity, and the observance of sacred obligations to the dead. This letter accomplished the intended purpose; and the bones of the rebel soldiers who fell on that memorable field, were interred as befitting not only a legal obligation, but the highest demands of civilization and our common humanity.

In his message to the Legislature of 1868, Governor Fenton forcibly expressed himself in favor of materially reducing the number of items in the tax lists, and of a re-adjustment of the assessment laws—now so glaringly unequal—in order that every source of wealth might bear its just proportion of burden. He also took strong ground in defence of the inviolate maintenance of the national faith. In his usual terse and vigorous style, he argued against the legality of the Governments instituted by

President Johnson, after the cessation of active hostilities, and held that the reconstruction acts of Congress were necessary, because the Southern States had rejected, with scorn, the peace-offering of the Constitutional Amendment. He eloquently expressed himself in behalf of the rights of the freedman, in consideration of his manhood and loyalty, to protection through law, and to the elective franchise.

Governor Fenton realized that the people of New York had made him their Chief Magistrate, and that they looked to him, and to no other person, for the faithful discharge of the duties of the responsible position. He was controlled by no clique—he was the agent of no cabal. He patiently listened to all who desired to consult him, and then followed the dictates of his own good judgment. He had no prejudice so strong, nor patiality so great, as to lead him to do an unjust act. He was a careful thinker and a hard worker. No man ever labored more hours in the executive chamber than he did. Whatever work engaged his attention, he attended to it personally, even to the minutest details.

At the State Republican Convention, in September, 1868, it being understood that Governor Fenton would not consent to be again a candidate, Hon. John A. Griswold was nominated for that office, but the Democrats being successful on the State ticket, Hon. John T. Hoffman was elected Governor.

The Legislature, in the winter of 1869, elected Reuben E. Fenton United States Senator for six years from March, 1869, and he took his place on the 4th of March following, succeeding Hon. Edwin D. Morgan. In the Senate, Mr. Fenton has manifested similar traits to those which made him so acceptable as a Governor. He belongs to the liberal wing of the Republican party, favors decentralization in the National Government, universal amnesty, and impartial suffrage, and does not regard

with satisfaction, the corruption which springs from a personal government, or from placing power and influence in the hands of bitter partisans who only desire it for their own private aims and emolument. Unfortunately he and President Grant differ in their views, and he has been in consequence most ruthlessly proscribed and denounced by the administration papers throughout the years 1871 and 1872. But the Senator is too fair and upright a man to be harmed by this abuse.

WILLIAM ALFRED BUCKINGHAM.

WILLIAM ALFRED BUCKINGHAM is a direct descendant, in the sixth generation, from the Rev. Thomas Buckingham and his wife Hester Hosmer, who were of Hartford, Connecticut, in 1666. His father, Captain Buckingham, as he was called, was a farmer, in Lebanon, Connecticut, a shrewd manager of property, of clear mind and sound judgment, and frequently appealed to as umpire in matters of difference between neighbors. His wife was a remarkable woman, having few equals in all that was good, endowed with strong natural powers both of mind and body, indomitable perseverance and energy; with, as one of her neighbors described her, "a great generous heart."

The son of these worthy people, who was born at Lebanon, May 24th, 1804, happily partook of the strong points of both his parents. His father being absent from home, on business, during a portion of the year, much of the work and care of the farm necessarily devolved upon him, while yet a mere boy, and he thus early acquired habits of industry and self-reliance. One who knew him well at this period of his life, says, "I don't think any thing left in his care was ever overlooked or neglected." The same friend says, "he was early trained in the school of benevolence. I have often seen him sent off on Saturday afternoons, when the weather was severe, with a wagon load of wood, from his father's well-stored wood-shed,

and a number of baskets and budgets, destined to cheer some destitute persons in the neighborhood, and make them comfortable. He received his education at the common school in Lebanon, and passed a term or two at Colchester Academy—evincing a peculiar fondness for the study of mathematics, especially in the higher branches. As he grew up, he developed as a lively, spirited "fast" young man, in the *best* acceptation of that term—his habits being excellent, and integrity being a marked feature in his character. Indeed, he was regarded as rather a leader among the young people with whom he associated.

In early manhood, he was a member of a cavalry militia company, and "trooped" with the same energy which has since characterized him in whatever he undertook—excelling in military matters, and becoming a master of the broadsword exercise.

Commencing mercantile life as a clerk in the city of New York, at the age of twenty years, he removed to Norwich, Connecticut in 1825, and entered into the employ of Messrs. Hamlin, Buckingham & Giles. A few years later he commenced business on his own account, and by enterprise, thrift, punctuality, and honorable dealing, became a most successful and widely respected merchant. He has since been extensively engaged in various manufactures; especially in the Hayward Rubber Company, of which he was treasurer for many years; and the town of Norwich has been largely indebted to his example and influence. He was one of the founders of the Norwich Free Academy, and, in 1849, was elected mayor of the city, which office he filled for two years. His eminently practical mind and great executive ability have contributed largely to the manufacturing and industrial interests of his native State; and the whole weight

of his personal character and sympathies has ever been enlisted in support of religion, temperance, industry, and education. We have it on excellent authority, that the governor, at the commencement of his business career, made a resolve to set aside one fifth of each year's income to be applied to objects of religious benevolence; and that his experience was for many years, and perhaps is still, that each year's income was so much in excess of that which preceded it, that at the year's end he always had an additional sum to distribute to objects of benevolence, to make out the full fifth of his receipts. A striking illustration this, of the declaration of holy writ: "There is that scattereth and yet increaseth." During the eight terms of his gubernatorial career, his entire salary, as governor, was bestowed upon benevolent objects; for the most part, we believe, on Yale college, in which he founded several scholarships, for worthy but indigent students. Indeed, the spirit of benevolence which he inherited from his parents, has ever remained a distinguishing feature of his character. In providing for the wants of the poor and unfortunate, and in the unostentatious performance of every good work, Governor Buckingham's life has been a record of unwearied industry.

The qualities which had gained him the respect of his fellow-citizens, as they became more widely known, commended him to the public as a candidate for higher positions of trust and responsibility. In 1858, he was elected Governor of Connecticut, and to the same office he was re-elected in 1859, and 1860. Again, on the 1st of April, 1861, he was chosen to the gubernatorial chair, by a majority of two thousand and eighty-six votes, the entire Republican State ticket being elected, at the same time, together with a large Union and Republican majority in both houses of the General Assembly. On the 15th of the same

month, he received the President's call for seventy-five thousand volunteers. The Legislature was not then in session, but the governor had been among the first to see (in 1860) the rising cloud of "the irrepressible conflict." He had long since abandoned any hopes of settling the national difficulties by compromise; he had recognized them as questions on which every citizen must decide squarely, for right or wrong, for freedom or slavery. Therefore his action, when the storm burst, was prompt and decided. He took immediate measures on his own responsibility, to raise and equip the quota of troops required from Connecticut; his own extensive financial relations enabling him to command the funds needed for the purpose. He threw himself into the work, with all the force of his energetic nature; and during that week of anxiety, when Washington was isolated from the north, by the Baltimore rising, *his* message—that the State of Connecticut was coming "to the rescue," with men and money, was the *first* intimation received by the President, that help was near at hand. The banks came to his aid, and money and personal assistance were tendered freely by prominent parties in every section of the State—so that, by the time (May 1st) that the Legislature had assembled in extra session (in response to a call which he had made upon the receipt of Mr. Lincoln's proclamation), he had the pleasure of informing them that forty-one volunteer companies had already been accepted, and that a fifth regiment was ready. Ten days later, the first regiment, eight hundred and thirty-four strong, under Colonel (afterwards General) A. H. Terry, left the State, equipped with a thoroughness—as were all the Connecticut troops—which elicited universal admiration from all who beheld them.

Soon after he pronounced his conviction, in an official communication to the Washington cabinet, that "this is no ordinary rebellion," that it "should be met and suppressed by a

power corresponding with its magnitude," that the President "should ask for authority to organize and arm a force of half a million of men, for the purpose of quelling the rebellion, and for an appropriation from the public treasury sufficient for their support," "that legislation upon every other subject should be regarded as out of time and place, and *the one great* object of suppressing the rebellion be pursued by the Administration, with vigor and firmness." "To secure such high public interests," said the governor, "the State of Connecticut will bind her destinies more closely to those of the General Government, and in adopting the measures suggested, she will renewedly pledge all her pecuniary and physical resources, and all her moral power." It will be seen, therefore, that Governor Buckingham took an accurate and comprehensive view of the extent, the probable course and the power of the war just inaugurated—and better would it have been for our country, if others of our leading statesmen had manifested, at that critical hour, the same calm, clear insight and broad statesmanship. There was nothing undecided in his thought or action. His suggestions upon every point relative to the prosecution of the war, and the policy of the State, were full of patriotic, far-seeing wisdom. He was nobly seconded by a loyal Legislature, and though "peace men" tried to intimidate the Unionists, their attempts recoiled upon their own heads. By the 1st of March, 1862, fifteen Connecticut regiments were in the field, and by November following, 28,551 soldiers had been furnished to the defence of the Union, by the little "Wooden Nutmeg State."

In April, 1862, Governor Buckingham was re-elected and his efforts were as untiring as ever. No amount of disaster in the field, of hesitation in council, or of depression in the public mind, seemed to affect him. He was always ready to make greater sacrifices; always full of hope and determination; and, with the

late lamented John A. Andrew, the noble governor of the sister State of Massachusetts, he was among the earliest to urge the necessity of an Emancipation Proclamation upon President Lincoln. When that great step had at length been taken, he wrote to the President these cheering and congratulatory words:

"Permit me to congratulate you and the country that you have so clearly presented the policy which you will hereafter pursue in suppressing the rebellion, and to assure you it meets my cordial approval, and shall have my unconditional support. The State has already sent into the army, and has now at the rendezvous, more than one half of her able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, and has more to offer, if wanted, to contend in battle against the enemies of our Government."

The spring campaign of 1863 was an exciting one; emboldened by the ill-success of the national arms, the Democracy rallied around the standard of "no more war!" while the Republicans, with equal ardor, advocated a more vigorous prosecution of the war, and were cordially seconded by the Connecticut soldiers in the field. Buckingham, however, was re-elected by a majority of 2637, in a total vote of 79,427, in which had been polled 9000 more votes than the year previous, and 2000 more than the aggregate presidential vote of 1860.

In April, 1864, Governor Buckingham was re-nominated by the Republicans, against Origen S. Seymour, Democrat, and was elected by a majority of 5,658, in a total vote of 73,982. Again, in 1865, he was re-elected governor over the same opponent by a majority of 11,035, in a vote of 73,374.

In his annual message he strongly advocated giving soldiers in the field the privilege of the ballot, and national legislation for the abolishment of slavery.

With 1865, closed Governor Buckingham's long gubernato-

rial career of eight years, of which five were "war years, fully tasking his every physical and mental power, and loading him with an incessant burden of responsibility and care. His course, during this arduous term of service, had commanded the universal respect of his fellow-citizens, and the admiration of all loyal hearts throughout the Northern States. Prominent among that noble circle of loyal governors who rallied around the President, in his darkest hours, with brotherly advice and encouraging words, Governor Buckingham's relations with Mr. Lincoln strongly remind us of those between President Washington and Governor Trumbull, the "Brother Jonathan" of the Revolutionary war.

After the close of his last term of service, in April, 1866, he returned to Norwich, where he quietly engaged again in mercantile affairs.

In the National Republican Union Convention which met at Chicago in May, 1868, his name was strongly supported, though against his will, for the Vice-Presidency. On the 19th of May, in the same year, he was elected by the Legislature of Connecticut United States Senator from that State for six years from March 4th, 1869, succeeding Hon. James Dixon in that office. As a Senator Governor Buckingham has maintained the high and spotless reputation which has so long marked his character. He seldom makes speeches, but is one of the most untiring workers in the Senate; and even the foul breath of slander has never dared to sully by the slightest whisper, his pure and immaculate fame.

WILLIAM GANNAWAY BROWNLOW.

REV. WILLIAM GANNAWAY BROWNLOW, the patriotic and heroic journalist, Governor, and Senator of Eastern Tennessee, was born in Wythe County, Virginia, on the 29th of August, 1805. He was the eldest son of Joseph A. Brownlow, a native of Rockbridge County, Virginia, who was characterized by his old associates and friends (among them General Sam. Houston), as possessing good sense, great independence, and sterling integrity. He was also a private in a Tennessee company during the "War of 1812," and two of his brothers were engaged in the battle at *Horseshoe*, under General Jackson, while two other brothers were officers in the American Navy, and died in the service. Joseph Brownlow died in Sullivan County, East Tennessee, in 1816, leaving his widow, Catharine Gannaway—a Virginian likewise—burdened with the care of five children, three sons and two daughters, all of whom are now dead, except the subject of our sketch. In less than three months from the time of her husband's demise, she also died, and the children were left to the charity of relatives and friends. Young William, now in his eleventh year, was taken by his mother's family, by whom he was brought up to hard labor, until he was eighteen years old, when he removed to Abingdon, Virginia, where he commenced an apprenticeship as a house carpenter.

Of course, his education, under the unfavorable circumstances of his earlier years, was imperfect and irregular, "even," as he says, "in those branches taught in the common schools of the country." As soon, therefore, as he had acquired his trade, he diligently set to work to obtain the means whereby to improve his mind, by going to school. Entering the Methodist ministry in 1826, he was for ten years a faithful and hard-worked itinerant preacher, availing himself, meanwhile, of every opportunity of study and improving his defective education, especially in the English branches. In 1832, he was chosen by the Holston Annual Conference as a delegate to the General Conference of the Methodist Church held in Philadelphia; and, during the same year, travelled a circuit in South Carolina, having appointments in the districts of Pickens and Anderson, and also in Franklin County, Georgia. Nullification was then raging in South Carolina, and men of all professions took sides, either in favor of the General Government, or of the South Carolina Ordinance of Disunion. Anderson District, which was one of Mr. Brownlow's appointments, was the residence of the arch-nullifier, John C. Calhoun, and the itinerant parson, living in such an atmosphere of excitement, and ever prone to give fearless expression to his own political convictions, soon found himself drawn conspicuously into the controversy. His stout defence of the Federal Government brought down upon him a storm of opposition so fierce that he felt obliged, in vindication of his position, to publish a pamphlet, in which he fully defined his principles on that particular question.

About the same time, also, he became engaged in a controversy with a clergyman of another denomination relative to the position of the Methodists with regard to slavery, and published in a pamphlet the following prophetic extract, expressing the sentiments he has ever since maintained:—"I have paid some

attention to this subject (slavery), young as I am, because it is, one day or other, to shake this Government to its very foundation. I expect to live to see that day, and not to be an old man at that. The tariff question now threatens the overthrow of the Government; but the slavery question is one to be dreaded. While I shall advocate the owning of 'men, women, and children,' as you say our 'Discipline' styles slaves, I shall, if I am living when the battle comes, stand by my Government and the Union formed by our fathers, as Mr. Wesley stood by the British Government, of which he was a loyal subject." Nobly has Mr. Brownlow's subsequent career performed this promise of his earlier years!

Mr. Brownlow began his political career in Tennessee, in 1828, by espousing, as he says, "the cause of John Quincy Adams as against Andrew Jackson. The latter I regard as having been a true patriot and a sincere lover of his country. The former I admired because he was a learned statesman, of pure moral and private character, and because I regarded him as a *Federalist*, representing my political opinions. I have all my life long been a *Federal Whig* of the *Washington and Alexander Hamilton* school. I am the advocate of a *concentrated Federal Government*, or of a strong *central Government*, able to maintain its dignity, to assert its authority, and to crush out any rebellion that may be inaugurated. I have never been a *sectional*, but at all times a *national* man, supporting men for the presidency and vice-presidency without any regard on which side of Mason and Dixon's Line they were born, or resided at the time of their nomination. In a word, I am, as I have ever been, an ardent *Whig*, and Clay and Webster have ever been my standards of political orthodoxy. With the breaking up of old parties, I have merged every thing into the great question of the 'Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement

of the laws.' Hence, I am an *unconditional* Union man, and advocate the preservation of the Union at the expense of all other considerations."

About 1837, he became the editor of the "*Knoxville* (Tenn.) *Whig*," a political newspaper which obtained a larger circulation than any other similar paper in the State, and even larger than all the papers in East Tennessee together. From the vigorous and defiant style of his articles in this sheet, as well as of his public speeches, he obtained a national reputation under the *sobriquet* of the "Fighting Parson." He was also actively engaged in all the religious and political controversies of the day, and, amid these varied labors, found time to write several books, the principal of which is entitled "The Iron Wheel Examined, and the False Spokes Extracted," being a vindication of the Methodist Church against the attacks of Rev. J. R. Graves, of Nashville. It was published by the Southern Methodist Book Concern, at the earnest solicitation of leading members of the denomination, and "is," to use his own words, "a work of great severity, but was written in reply to one of still greater severity."

In September, 1858, Parson Brownlow held a public debate at Philadelphia, with Rev. Abram Payne, of New York, in which he defended the institution of Slavery as it existed in the South. This discussion was afterward published in Philadelphia under the title of "Ought American Slavery to be Perpetuated?"

From the beginning of the Secession movement in 1860, Brownlow, as was to be expected from his life-long sentiments, boldly advocated, in his paper, unconditional adherence to the Union, for the reason, among others, that it was the best safeguard to southern institutions. This course subjected him to much obloquy and persecution after the secession of Tennessee,

and on the 24th of October, 1861, he published the last number of the *Whig* issued under the Slaveocratic Government. In this closing number, he announced his intention not to re-issue his journal until after the State had been cleared of rebels; and he also expressed his expectation of a hurried removal and lengthy imprisonment at their hands. Avowing his determination never to take the oath of allegiance to the Confederacy, he asserted that he would "submit to imprisonment for life, or die at the end of a rope," before he would make any humiliating concession to any power on earth. "I shall go to jail," said he, "as John Rogers went to the stake—for my principles. I shall go, because I have failed to recognize the hand of God in the breaking up of the American Government, and the inauguration of the most wicked, cruel, unnatural, and uncalled-for war ever recorded in history. * * I am proud of my position and of my principles, and shall leave them to my children as a legacy far more valuable than a princely fortune, had I the latter to bestow."

Remaining, for awhile, unmolested at Knoxville, he was finally taken away by his friends, and remained in concealment for some time in the mountains of Tennessee, until he was induced, by the offer of a safe escort out of the State to the North, to appear at the rebel military headquarters at Knoxville. Upon his arrival there, December 6th, 1861, he was arrested, on a civil process, for treason, and thrown into jail. After a month's confinement, he was released, only to be immediately re-arrested by military authority, and was kept under guard in his own house, expecting death, and suffering from severe illness, till March 3d, 1862. He was then sent, under escort, toward the Union lines at Nashville, which he finally entered on the 15th, having been detained ten days by the guerrilla force of Colonel Morgan. Subsequently he made an

extensive and successful tour of the Northern States, addressing large audiences in all the principal cities, and wrote an autobiographical work, entitled, "Sketches of the Rise, Progress, and Decline of Secession, with a Narrative of Personal Adventure among the Rebels," which was published in Philadelphia. This work, popularly known as "Parson Brownlow's Book," had an extensive sale. During the month of November, 1862, Mr. Brownlow, having been joined by his family, who had also been expelled from Knoxville, took up his residence at Cincinnati, Ohio, for a time. After the battle of Murfreesboro, he removed, with his family, to Nashville, Tennessee, there to await the earliest opportunity of returning to Knoxville, and re-establishing *The Whig*, for which purpose he had received considerable "material aid" during his tour in the Northern States. In September, 1863, the capture of that city afforded him the long-desired chance to return to his old home, and before leaving Nashville, he, on the 7th of September, 1863, issued his prospectus for the *Knoxville Whig*, under the new and euphonious title of "*Brownlow's Knoxville Whig and Rebel Ventilator.*" Its first number was announced to be issued on the anniversary of the day when his "paper was crushed out by the God-forsaken mob at Knoxville, called the Confederate authorities," and his purpose was, as he said, "to commence with the rebellion where the traitors had forced him to leave off." He promised, in the editorial conduct of the paper, to "forget Whigs, Democrats, Know Nothings, and Republicans, and remember only the Government and the preservation of the Federal Union—as richly worth all the sacrifices of blood and treasure their preservation may cost—even to the extermination of the present race of men, and the consumption of all the means of the present age."

He has conducted his paper, from that time to the present,

with a fearlessness and power of denunciation, which has made it a terror to the rebels of Tennessee; and their hatred of him has manifested itself by constant acts of malignity. He has, driven in part by his more fully developed convictions, and in part by the irresistible logic of events, come more and more fully upon the Republican platform, till to-day he is as thorough a Radical as any man in the West. He has advocated both in his paper and in his place in the Senate, every great measure which is regarded as cardinal by the Republican party, and though his health is very feeble, he never abates one jot of the intensity of his invective against the Rebels.

In 1865, when Tennessee returned to the Union, Mr. Brownlow was elected, by an overwhelming majority, Governor of the State, and in 1867, re-elected to the same high office. He has brought to his duties his unimpeachable honesty, his fearless and unflinching integrity, and his remarkable executive ability, and has been one of the best governors the State has ever had. The legislature of 1867 elected him to the United States Senate, for the six years commencing March 4th, 1869.

Of himself, Parson Brownlow says (in 1862): "I have been a laboring man all my life long, and have acted upon the Scriptural maxim of eating my bread in the sweat of my brow. Though a Southern man in feeling and principle, I do not think it *degrading* to a man to labor, as do most Southern disunionists. Whether East or West, North or South, I recognize the *dignity of labor*, and look forward to a day, not very far distant, when *educated labor* will be the salvation of this vast country! * * * I am known throughout the length and breadth of the land as the 'Fighting Parson,' while I may say, without incurring the charge of egotism, that no man is more peaceable, as my neighbors will testify. Always poor, and always oppressed with *security* debts, few men in my section and of my limited means have given away more in the course of each year to

charitable objects. I have never been arraigned in the church for immorality. I never played a card. I never was a profane swearer. I never drank a dram of liquor, until within a few years, when it was taken as a medicine. I never had a cigar or a chew of tobacco in my mouth. I never was in attendance at a theatre. I never attended a horse-race, and never witnessed their running save on the fair grounds of my own county. I never courted but one woman; and her I married.

"I am about six feet high, and have weighed as high as one hundred and seventy-five pounds,—have had as fine a constitution as any man need desire. I have very few grey hairs in my head, and although rather *hard-favored* than otherwise, I will pass for a man of forty years.* I have had as strong a voice as any man in East Tennessee, where I have resided for the last thirty years, and have a family of seven children."

We may add that Mr. Brownlow's earnestness of convictions, and fearlessness in their avowal, is equalled only by the *intensity* of the language which he employs to express his sentiments. There is nothing "mealy-mouthed" about him—men and things are called by their right names—and *words* are applied with a "squareness" and force which is peculiarly the "Parson's own."

He has seemed, for the last three or four years, to live by sheer force of his imperious will. His enemies, political and other, have often congratulated themselves that he was about to die; but the old man declares that he "will outlive them, and rejoice that a righteous God has sent them to perdition."

* The ten years which have passed since Parson Brownlow wrote this, and his impaired health, have greatly changed his appearance. He is no more *hard-favored* than he was then, but he looks full as old as he is, viz., sixty-seven.

JAMES HARLAN.

HON. JAMES HARLAN, late Secretary of the Interior, and now United States Senator from Iowa, was born in Clark county, Illinois, August 26th, 1820. When he was three years of age his parents removed to Indiana, where he was employed during his minority in assisting his father upon the farm. His early advantages of education were small but they were improved to the utmost. In the year 1841, he entered the preparatory department of Asbury University, then under the presidency of the present Bishop Simpson. He graduated from the university with honor, in 1845, having paid his way by teaching, at intervals, during his college course.

In the winter of 1845–6, he was elected professor of languages in Iowa City college, and removed thither. He soon became popular in the city and State, and in 1847 was elected State Superintendent of Public Instruction. His competitor for this office was Hon. Charles Mason, a distinguished graduate of West Point, who had served as Chief Justice of the Federal court of Iowa Territory during the whole period of its existence, a gentleman of great ability and unblemished reputation, and the nominee of the Democratic party, who had been, and subsequently were, the dominant party in the State. His election over such a competitor was highly creditable to him, especially as he had been a resident of the State but two years.

In 1848, Mr. Harlan was superseded by Thomas H. Benton, Jr., who was reported by the canvassing officers elected by seventeen majority. The count was subsequently conceded to have been fraudulent, though Mr. Benton was not cognizant of the fraud. Mr. Harlan had been for some time engaged in the study of law, in his intervals of leisure, and now applied himself to it more closely, and was admitted to the bar in 1848. He continued the practice of his profession for five years, and was eminently successful in it. During this period (in 1849) he was nominated by his party for governor, but not being of the constitutional age for that office, he declined the nomination.

In 1853, he was elected, by the annual conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, President of the Mount Pleasant Collegiate Institute, which during the winter following was re-organized under an amended charter as a university, and Mr. Harlan was retained in the presidency. His energy and industry found full scope in this position, and for the next two years the university grew and prospered.

On the 6th of January, 1855, without any candidacy, or even knowledge of his nomination, Mr. Harlan was elected by the Legislature, United States Senator from Iowa, for the six years commencing March 4th, 1855. As a pretended informality in this election was made the occasion of his being unseated by the Democratic majority in the United States Senate, two years later, it may be well to give a somewhat more detailed account of this election. In accordance with the custom and the Constitution of Iowa, the Senate and House of Representatives of the Iowa Legislature met, in joint session, soon after the first of January, 1855, to elect a Senator and judges. The two parties were nearly balanced in both houses, and at first there was no election; they adjourned from day to day, when the Democrats found that a majority could be obtained on joint

ballot for Mr. Harlan as Senator, and to prevent this, the Democratic members of the State Senate withdrew, intending thereby to render an election void. But as the Democratic members of the House remained, there was a quorum of the joint session present, and Mr. Harlan was elected by a clear majority of both houses.

On his election to the Senate, Mr. Harlan resigned the presidency of the university, but accepted the professorship of political economy and international law, to which he was immediately elected, and which he still holds.

He took his seat in the United States Senate, December 3d, 1855, and his first formal speech was made on the 27th of March, 1856, on the question of the admission of Kansas. It was pronounced at the time, by both friends and foes, the ablest argument on that side of the question delivered during the protracted debate. Later in the session, on the occasion of his presenting the memorial of James H. Lane, praying the acceptance of the petition of the members of the Kansas territorial Legislature, for the admission of their territory into the Union as a State, he administered a most scathing rebuke to the Democratic majority in the Senate for their tyrannical and oppressive course in regard to Kansas. The Republicans at this time numbered but a baker's dozen in the Senate, and it had been the fashion with the Democratic majority to refuse intercourse, and a place on the committees, to some of them on the ground that they were outside of any healthy political organization. They had been disposing, as they hoped, forever, of the Republican leader in the Senate (Mr. Sumner), by the use of the bludgeon, and they were greatly enraged at the castigation which they now received from another member of the little band, and resolved to rid themselves of him also. For this purpose, nursing their wrath to keep it warm, they

called up the action of the Democrats of the Iowa Senate to which we have already alluded, and early in the second session of the Thirty-fourth Congress, introduced a resolution that "James Harlan is not entitled to his seat as a Senator from Iowa." The resolution was fiercely debated, but the majority, confident in their strength, passed it by a full party vote on the 12th of January, 1857.

Their triumph was short. Immediately on the passage of the resolution Mr. Harlan left Washington for Iowa City, where the State Legislature, now unmistakably Republican, was in session; he arrived there on Friday evening, January 16th. On the next day, Saturday, he was re-elected by both houses to the Senate, spent a few days at his home in Mount Pleasant, returned to Washington, was re-sworn, and resumed his seat on the 29th of January. The next session of Congress brought valuable additions to the strength of the Republican party in the Senate, but it had no truer member than Mr. Harlan, and his fearlessness, conscientiousness, industry, integrity, and ability as a debater, made him an acknowledged leader in it. In 1861, he was re-elected for the term ending March 4th, 1867, without a dissenting voice in his party at home.

He was a member of the Peace Congress in 1861, but after seeing the members sent from the slave States, and witnessing the election of Ex-President John Tyler presiding officer, he predicted that its deliberations would end in a miserable failure.

During the whole course of the war, he was the earnest supporter of President Lincoln, whose personal friendship he enjoyed; and through all the light and gloom of that dark period, his faith in the right never faltered, and his activity and zeal were not checked by depressing emotions. He and his accomplished and gifted wife were throughout the war among the

most active helpers in the work of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, ministering in person to the wounded, and aiding, with pen and purse, the efforts for their welfare.

As a Senator, as the published debates of Congress show, he argued and elucidated with great clearness and conclusiveness every phase of the question of slavery and emancipation, in all their social, legal and economic ramifications—the exclusion of slavery from the territories—the constitutional means of restriction—climatic influences on the races, white and black—the necessity or propriety of colonization—and the effects of emancipation on the institutions of the country North and South.

He was the earnest advocate of the early construction of the Pacific Railroad—had made himself, by a careful examination, master of the whole subject—was consequently appointed a member of the "Senate Committee on the Pacific Railroad;" and when the two bodies differed as to the details of the bill, he was made chairman of the committee of conference of the two houses, and did more than any other living man to reconcile conflicting views on the amended bill which afterwards became the law of the land.

As chairman of the Committee on Public Lands, he exerted a controlling influence in shaping the policy of the Government in the disposition of the public domain, so as to aid in the construction of railroads, and the improvement of other avenues of intercourse, as well as to advance the individual interests of the frontier settler, by facilitating his acquisition of a landed estate, and also by securing a permanent fund for the support of common schools for the masses, and other institutions of learning. Under his guidance the laws for the survey, sale, and pre-emption of the public lands were harmonized, and the homestead bil so modified, as to render it a practical and

beneficent measure for the indigent settler, and at the same time but slightly, if at all, detrimental to the public treasury. And on this as well as that other great national measure, the Pacific Railroad bill, above mentioned, when the two houses disagreed as to details, Mr. Harlan was selected by the President of the Senate, to act as chairman of the committee of conference.

His thorough acquaintance with the land laws, his clear perception of the principles of justice and equity which should control in their administration, and his unwearied industry and care in the examination of all claims presented to Congress growing out of the disposition of the public lands to private citizens, corporations, or States—caused him to be regarded almost in the light of an oracle, by his compeers in the Senate, whenever any of these claims were pending; his statements, of fact were never disputed, and his judgment almost always followed.

Immediately after he was placed upon the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs, it became manifest that he had made himself master of that whole subject in all of its details. He consequently exercised a leading influence on the legislation of Congress affecting our intercourse with these children of the forest; humanity and justice to them, as well as the safety of the frontier settlements from savage warfare, with him were cardinal elements, to guide him in shaping the policy of the Government. The effect of the repeal, over Mr. Harlan's earnest protest, of the beneficent features of the Indian intercourse laws, under the lead of Senator Hunter, which, all admit, laid the foundation for our recent Indian wars, furnishes a marked illustration of the safety of his counsels in these affairs.

As a member of the Senate Committee on Agriculture, he was the earnest advocate of every measure calculated to develop

and advance that great national interest, and prepared the only report, marked by scientific research, made on that subject by the Senate Committee during the last ten years. He gave his earnest support to the Agricultural College bill, though in conflict with his views of the proper policy for the disposition of the public lands, because he regarded it as the only opportunity for laying firmly the foundation for these nurseries of scientific agriculture, which must prove of vast consequence for good, to the whole people of this continent, and the toiling millions of the old world.

Though never unjust or illiberal toward the older and more powerful members of the Union, he has ever been the vigilant guardian of the peculiar interests of the new States, including his own. He has also been a no less vigilant guardian of the public treasury, though never lending himself to niggardly and parsimonious measures.

His inauguration of the proposition for the construction of a ship canal from the northern lakes to the waters of the Mississippi (see Congress. Globe, 2d session, 36 Congress, Part I.); his opposition to legislation on the Sabbath; his introduction of resolutions on fasting and prayer; his propositions for reform in the chaplain service of the army and navy; in aid of foreign emigration; the reconstruction of the insurrectionary States; the reclamation of the Colorado desert; the improvement of navigation of lakes and rivers; the application of meteorological observations in aid of agriculture to land as well as sea; for the support of scientific explorations and kindred measures; for reform in criminal justice in the District of Columbia and in the territories; and his remarks on such subjects as the bankrupt bill; the Kentucky Volunteers bill; the bill to re-organize the Court of Claims; on the resolution relating to Floyd's acceptances; on the bill to indemnify the President; on the conscrip

tion bill; on the conditions of release of State prisoners; on the disqualification of color in carrying the mails; on the organization of territories; on amendment to the Constitution; on the district registration bill; on bill to establish Freedmen's Bureau; on inter-continental telegraph; on bill providing bail in certain cases of military arrests; on the construction of railroads; on education in the District of Columbia for white and colored children; on the Income Tax bill; altogether furnish an indication of the range of his acquirements, the tendency of his thoughts, and the breadth of his views, which cannot otherwise be given in a sketch necessarily so brief as to exclude copious extracts from published debates.

Among his numerous eloquent and elaborate speeches in the Senate, we have only room for a brief abstract of one, which must serve as a sample of the whole. It is that delivered in reply to Senator Hunter of Virginia, during the winter of 1860–61, immediately preceding the first overt acts of the rebellion. This speech was characteristic in clearness, method, directness, force, and conclusiveness, and was regarded, by his associates in the Senate, as the great speech of the session. In the commencement, he examined and exposed, in their order, every pretext for secession, and proceeded to charge upon the authors of the then incipient rebellion, with unsurpassed vigor and force, that the loss of political power was their *real grievance*. He indicated the impossibility of any compromise, on the terms proposed by the southern leaders, without dishonor, and pointed out the means of an adjustment alike honorable to the South and the North, requiring no retraction of principle on the part of any one, by admitting the territories into the Union as States. He warned the South against a resort to an arbitrament of the sword; predicted the impossibility of their securing a division of the States of the northwest from the Middle and New Eng-

land States the certainty and comparative dispatch with which an armed rebellion would be crushed, and concluded with a most powerful appeal to these conspirators not to plunge the country into such a sea of blood. Upon the conclusion of this speech four fifths of the Union Senators crowded around to congratulate him, and a state of excitement prevailed on the floor of the Senate for some moments, such as had seldom if ever before been witnessed in that body.

He was selected by the Union members of the House and Senate as a member of the Union Congressional committee for the management of the presidential campaign of 1864. Being the only member of the committee on the part of the Senate who devoted his whole time to this work, he became the active organ of the committee—organized an immense working force, regulated its finances with ability and unimpeachable fidelity, employed a large number of presses in Washington, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, in printing reading matter for the masses, which resulted in the distribution of many millions of documents among the people at home, and in all our great armies. To his labors the country was, doubtless, largely indebted, for the triumphant success of the Union candidates.

With the foregoing record, it is not remarkable that he should have been selected by that illustrious statesman and patriot, Abraham Lincoln, immediately preceding his lamented death, for the distinguished office of Secretary of the Interior.

Mr. Harlan's nomination was unanimously confirmed by the body of which he was at the time an honored member, without the usual reference to a committee. But, immediately after the accession of Mr. Johnson to the presidency, with a delicacy and sense of propriety worthy of imitation, he tendered his declination of this high office. This not being accepted, Mr.

Harlan did not deem it proper, in the disturbed condition of public affairs, to make it peremptory, and, in accordance with the President's expressed desire, and the demands of the national welfare, resigned his seat in the Senate, and entered on the discharge of the duties of the position, May 15th, 1865. Mr Harlan's great familiarity with the laws pertaining to the department of which he had now become the leading spirit, not only enabled him fully to meet public expectation in the administration of its affairs, but to establish it upon a basis of usefulness, hitherto unknown in its history.

The fact becoming manifest to the people of Iowa, that Mr. Harlan could not long remain as a confidential adviser of President Johnson, on account of the early and repeated aberrations of the latter from the cardinal principles of the political party by whom he had been elected to the vice-presidency, and not being disposed to dispense with the services of so faithful a public servant, he was re-elected by the Legislature of 1866, to his old seat in the United States Senate. The following August he resigned the office of Secretary of the Interior, and re-entered the Senate Chamber on the 4th of March, 1867, with the full period of six years before him. He was immediately appointed chairman of the Committee on the District of Columbia, also chairman of the joint committee of the two Houses of Congress to audit expenses of executive mansion, and was assigned to membership on the important committees of Foreign Relations, Pacific railroad, and Post Offices, and Post roads, respectively.

Mr. Harlan is still (1872) a member of the Senate, though his term expires March 3rd, 1873, and Hon. James F. Wilson, an able statesman of the same party, has been elected his successor.

Mr. Harlan's early record was so pure and creditable to him, that it is hardly probable that he has done anything to mar

it; yet it is very difficult for a Senator or Representative in Congress who pushes forward the great land jobbing grants to the Western Railroads to avoid a suspicion of having shared in the profits thus ensured to his clients. Mr. Harlan has been accused, and with great vehemence, of participating in the benefits of these land-grants, but he has defended himself with a good deal of ability, and some asperity, and his innocence is to be presumed. That these charges defeated his re-election is asserted, and is probable, but their truth is not proved thereby.

HON. ROSCOE CONKLING.

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM NEW YORK.

WHEN, some years since, the Representative of the twenty-first Congressional District of New York was declared, by a majority of his peers, to have been guilty of corruption, and to be unworthy of a seat with them, the Republican voters of that district, one of the most intelligent and refined in the state, looked about them for a man of integrity and purity of character who should fully represent their sentiments in the national legislature. Such a man they found speedily; a young man but little more than thirty years of age, but of highly cultivated intellect, staunch integrity, an eminent advocate, and at that time mayor of Utica, the chief city of the district. They elected him; and, young as he was, he speedily made his mark, in three Congresses of remarkable ability, taking a position with the foremost, in the fervor of his patriotism, the clearness of his perceptions, the soundness of his judgment, and his eloquence as a debater, and at the close of his six years' service in the House of Representatives, though re-elected from his district, he was transferred by the Legislature of his native State, to a seat in the United States Senate, previously occupied by one of the most eminent jurists of New York.

ROSCOE CONKLING (for it is he of whom we speak), was born at Albany, New York, October 30, 1829; he was a younger son of Hon. Alfred Conkling, a member of the XVIIth Congress,

and subsequently judge of the United States District Court, for the Northern District of New York, for twenty-seven years, and in 1852–5, United States minister to Mexico; he received a very thorough academic education in the Albany academy, and in 1846, removed to Utica, where he studied and practiced law, and when but twenty-one years of age, was appointed district attorney for Oneida county. In 1858, he was elected mayor of Utica, by a heavy majority. During the autumn of the same year, he was nominated for Congress from the twenty-first district, to succeed O. B. Matteson. He was carried in by a large majority, and though the youngest member of the House, attained speedily to a very prominent position in that body, as a fearless, eloquent, and accomplished debater. He was re-elected in 1860, and still added to his reputation. He was chairman of the Committee on the District of Columbia, and on a Bankrupt Law. In 1862, New York was so far faithless to her principles as to elect a Democratic Administration, Horatio Seymour, Mr. Conkling's brother-in-law, being chosen governor; and a professed war Democrat, but real Copperhead, elected to Congress from the twenty-first district to the XXXVIIIth Congress. But the people of that district were dissatisfied, and, in 1864, they re-elected Mr. Conkling by a heavier majority than ever before. During the two years that he was out of Congress, Mr. Conkling was requested by the attorney-general to aid in the prosecution of some gross frauds which had been committed in that district, in regard to the enlistments and bounties to soldiers. He entered upon the work with his usual ardor and zeal, and succeeded in unearthing a most astounding system of frauds. By this act, he rendered a great service to the nation, for which he received the thanks of the War Department, but he had incurred the hostility of the "Ring," which determined thenceforward to crush him. The opportunity did

not occur until the summer of 1866, when, as he was nominated again for Congress, a man of large wealth, previously a Republican, determined to run in opposition to him, and to defeat him, if it could be accomplished by money. Mr. Conkling at once announced his intention to canvass the district in person, and did so, speaking in every village and town of the county, and was re-elected by an increased majority. The Republican Legislature which met in January, 1867, elected Mr. Conkling United States Senator for six years, from March 4, 1867, to succeed Hon. Ira Harris.

A single passage from one of Mr. Conkling's speeches, will serve to show his earnestness, the intensity of his convictions, and the ability with which he presents them. The occasion was this; Tennessee had been restored to the Union, and her loyal Representatives and one Senator sworn in. The other Senator, Judge Patterson, a son-in-law of President Johnson, was, it was thought, from the fact of his having, though a Union man, held office under the rebel government, unable to take the test oath prescribed for all Senators and Representatives, and the Senate had passed a joint resolution to omit in his case, from the test oath, these words: "That I have neither sought nor accepted, nor attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever, under any authority, or pretended authority, in hostility to the United States." This resolution was immediately sent to the House of Representatives for their consideration. Messrs. Maynard and Taylor of Tennessee advocated it, and Mr. Stokes, also of Tennessee, and Mr. Conkling of New York, opposed it. The closing passage of Mr. Conkling's speech was as follows:

"We are asked to drive a plough-share over the very foundation of our position; to break down and destroy the bulwark by which we may secure the results of a great war and a great history, by which we may preserve from defilement this

place, where alone in our organism the people never lose their supremacy, except by the recreancy of their Representatives; a bulwark without which we may not save our Government from disintegration and disgrace. If we do this act, it will be a precedent which will carry fatality in its train. From Jefferson Davis, to the meanest tool of despotism and treason, every rebel may come here, and we shall have no reason to assign against his admission, except the arbitrary reason of numbers. I move, sir, that the joint resolution be laid on the table." It *was* laid on the table, by a vote of eighty-eight to thirty-one; and the same day, Judge Patterson, having discovered that he could take the test oath, was sworn in by the Vice-President, and the joint resolution laid over forever.

Sudden and rapid promotion to the highest places in the people's gift has before now turned the heads of many otherwise estimable men, and if Mr. Conkling has failed to fulfil in all respects the promise of his earlier years in Congress, as very many of his former friends believe, it is doubtless due in part to his rapid promotion, in part to the grateful but not always healthful influence of the profuse flattery he has received, and to the overweening sense of his own gifts, talents and power, which have been thus bred in him. Mr. Conkling is a man of remarkably fine appearance, and a great favorite of the ladies; he is a man of scholarly tastes and of considerable eloquence; but since he has been in the Senate, he has lost that modesty which so well became him, and by his imperious and dictatorial manner, and his fierce invective against men who, to say the least, were in all respects his peers, he has lost influence in the nation, and has recalled the traditions of the old days when the slave holder's whip cracked ominously in the Senate against all who failed to do its behests. It grieves us to say such things of a man of so much real ability as Mr. Conkling; and we cannot but

hope that in the coming years he may see that the power which is founded on love and respect is infinitely greater than that which is reared on force and brutality, and may be led to unite, as he certainly does not now, the *suaviter in modo* to the *fortiter in re.*

MAJOR-GENERAL JOHN A. LOGAN.

JOHN ALEXANDER LOGAN, who has been styled "the Murat of the Union army," was born near the present town of Murphysboro, Jackson county, in Illinois, on the 9th of February, 1826. His father, Dr. John Logan, came from Ireland to Illinois, in 1823; his mother, Elizabeth Jenkins, was a Tennessean, and John was the eldest of their family of eleven children. Schools were scarce in Illinois, during his boyhood, so that he was indebted for most of his early education to his father, or to such itinerant teachers as chanced to visit the new settlement—and it was not until 1840, that he attended an academy, bearing the pretentious title of "Shiloh college." At the commencement of the Mexican war, young Logan, then in his twentieth year, volunteered, and was chosen lieutenant in a company of the first Illinois volunteers; bearing a conspicuous part in the service of the regiment, of which, for a portion of the time, he was adjutant. Returning home in October, 1848, he commenced the study of law in the office of his uncle, Alexander M. Jenkins, formerly lieutenant-governor of Illinois, and while thus employed, was elected, in November, 1849, clerk of his native county, holding the office until 1850. During that year, he attended a course of law studies at Louisville, receiving his diploma in 1851, and commencing the practice of his profession with his uncle. His practical mind, pleasing address,

and rare abilities as a public speaker, speedily rendered him a general favorite, and, in 1852, he was elected prosecuting attorney of the then third judicial district, and established his residence at Benton, Illinois. During the autumn of the same year, he was elected to represent Jackson and Franklin counties, in the State Legislature; married in 1856; was chosen presidential elector for the ninth Congressional district, in May, 1856, and in the following fall was re-elected to the Legislature. In 1858, the Democracy of the ninth Congressional district elected him to Congress by a large majority, and re-elected him, again, in 1860. At the first intimation of coming trouble, he boldly asserted that, although he thought and hoped that Mr. Lincoln would not be elected to the presidency; yet, if he were, he would "shoulder his musket to have him inaugurated." During the winter of 1860, his county having been thrown out of his old district and added to another, he removed his residence to Marion, Williamson county, in order that he might still be in his district.

In July, 1861, during the extra session of Congress, Mr. Logan, fired with the enthusiasm of the hour, left his seat, overtook the troops which were marching out of Washington to meet the enemy, joined himself to Colonel Richardson's regiment, secured a musket and a place in the ranks, and, at the disastrous battle of Bull Run, fought with distinguished bravery, and was among the last to leave the field. Returning to his home, at Marion, in the latter part of August, he addressed his fellow-citizens, on the 3d of September, announcing his intention to enter the service of the Government, "as a private, or in any capacity in which he could serve his country best, in defending the old blood-stained flag over every foot of soil in the United States." His eloquence and high personal reputation rallied friends and neighbors around him, and, on the 13th of Septem-

ber, 1861, the thirty-first Illinois volunteers was organized, and he was chosen colonel. The regiment was attached to General McClernand's brigade; and, seven weeks later, at Belmont, made its first fight, during which Colonel Logan had a horse shot under him, and his pistol, at his side, shattered by rebel bullets. He led the thirty-first, also, at Fort Henry, and, again, at Fort Donelson, where he received a very severe wound, which, aggravated by exposure, disabled him for some time from active service. Reporting, again, for duty to General Grant, at Pittsburgh Landing, he was shortly after, March 5th, 1862, made brigadier-general of volunteers; took a distinguished part in the movement against Corinth, in May, and, after the occupation of that place, guarded, with his brigade, the railroad communications with Jackson, Tennessee, of which place he was subsequently given the command.

In the summer of 1862, he was warmly urged by his numerous friends and admirers to become a candidate, again, for Congress, but declined in a letter of glowing patriotism, in which he said,—"I have entered the field to die, if need be, for this Government, and never expect to return to peaceful pursuits, until the object of this war of preservation has become a fact established." During Grant's Northern Mississippi campaign, 1862 and '63, Logan led his division, exhibiting great skill in the handling of troops, and was honored with a promotion as major-general of volunteers, dating from November 29th, 1862. He was afterwards assigned to the command of the third division, seventeenth army corps, under General McPherson, and bore a part in the movement upon Vicksburg; contributing to the victory at Port Gibson, and saving the day, by his desperate personal bravery, May 12th, at the battle of Raymond, which General Grant designated as "one of the hardest small battles of the war;" participated in the defeat and routing of

the rebels at Jackson, May 14th, and in the battle of Champion's Hill, May 16th.

At the siege of Vicksburg, he commanded McPherson's centre, opposite Fort Hill, the key to the rebel works, and his men made the assault after the explosion of the mine, June 25th. His column was the first to enter the surrendered city, on the 4th of July, 1863, and he was made its military governor. His valor was fitly recognized in the presentation made to him, by the board of honor of the seventeenth army corps, of a gold medal, inscribed with the names of the nine battles in which he had participated. Having thoroughly inaugurated the administration of affairs at Vicksburg, he spent a part of the summer of 1863 in a visit to the North, frequently addressing large assemblages of his fellow-citizens, in speeches of fiery eloquence, and burning zeal and devotion to the cause of the Union.

In November, 1863, he succeeded General Sherman in the command of the fifteenth army corps, spending the following winter at Huntsville, Alabama; joining, in May, 1864, the Grand Military Division of the Mississippi, which, under General Sherman, was preparing for its march into Georgia. He led the advance of the Army of the Tennessee in the movement at Resaca, taking part in the battle which followed, and, still moving on the right, met and repulsed Hardee's veterans at Dallas, on the 23d of May; drove the enemy from three lines of works, at Kenesaw Mountain, and again, on the 27th of June, made a desperate assault against the impregnable face of Little Kenesaw. On the 22d of July, at the terrible battle of Peach Tree creek, Logan, fighting at one moment on one side of his works, and the next on the other, was informed of the death, in another part of the field, of the beloved General McPherson. Assuming the temporary command, Logan dashed impetuously from one end to the other of his hardly-pressed lines, shouting

"McPherson and revenge!" His emotion communicated itself to the troops with the rapidity of electricity, and eight thousand rebel dead left upon the field, at nightfall, bore mute witness to their love for the fallen chief and the bravery of his successor. Conspicuous, again, at the obstinate battle of Ezra Chapel, July 28th, he and his troops co-operated in the remaining battles of the campaign, until the fall of Atlanta, September 2d, when they went into summer-quarters. After a few months spent in stumping the Western States, during the presidential campaign of 1864, General Logan rejoined his corps, at Savannah, Georgia, shared the fatigues and honors of Sherman's march through the Carolinas, and, after Johnston's surrender, marched to Alexandria, and participated with his brave veterans in the great review of the national armies at Washington, May 23d, being advanced, on the same day, to the command of the Army of the Tennessee, upon the appointment of General Howard to other duties.

In 1865, General Logan was appointed minister to Mexico, but declined the honor, and was elected to the XLth Congress, from the State at large, as a Republican, receiving two hundred and three thousand and forty-five votes, against one hundred and forty-seven thousand and fifty-eight, given for his Democratic opponent. He took a prominent part, as one of the managers on the part of the House of Representatives, in the impeachment trial of President Johnson.

General Logan was re-elected as Congressman at large to the XLIst and to the XLIId Congresses, but in the winter of 1871 he was chosen by the Legislature of Illinois to succeed Richard Yates, as United States Senator from that State. The selection was hardly a wise one either for the State or the General himself. In the house of Representatives, General Logan was perfectly at home. His capacity for work, his fiery and somewhat

stilted eloquence, and his power to influence the sympathies and emotions of his hearers, were thoroughly in place; but in the Senate he was strangely out of his element by the side of his dignified and scholarly colleague, and though disposed to be active and laborious, he ran the risk of sinking to the position of one of the buffoons of the Senate, a fate which he certainly did not deserve. He lacked that wide range of scholarship and knowledge of state-craft, which was so necessary in a Senator from the great State which he represented, and in consequence did not do himself justice. He was during his first year in the Senate very caustic and severe in his denunciation of President Grant, saying many and bitter things against him, and when, in May, 1872, he suddenly became his ardent defender and eulogist, too many, who did not understand his impetuous and impulsive nature, attributed the change to base and unworthy motives.

HON. JAMES F. WILSON,

REPRESENTATIVE IN CONGRESS FROM IOWA.

AN able, clear-headed lawyer, of cool, calm, judicial mind and sterling patriotism, is the late Representative from the first Congressional district of Iowa. The West has sent very few Representatives of higher talent, or greater ability and disposition for usefulness, to Congress within the last twenty years. Although a comparatively young man, (he has not yet seen his forty-fourth birthday,) the House leaned upon him, confided in him, and placed him in its positions of great responsibility, and it never found itself disappointed.

JAMES F. WILSON was born at Newark, Ohio, October 19, 1828; received in that city, which, for years, has been famous for its good schools, a very thorough academic education, and then commenced the study of the law, and was admitted to the Licking county bar, about 1849; in 1853, he removed to Fairfield, Iowa, where he speedily took a high rank in his profession. In 1856, though but twenty-eight years old, he was chosen a member of the convention to revise the State Constitution, and acquitted himself with honor there. In 1857, he was appointed, by the governor of the State, Assistant Commissioner of the Des Moines River Improvement. The same year he was elected to the Legislature, and became at once a leader in the House. In 1859, he was chosen State Senator, and re-elected in 1861, when he was made President of the Senate.

In this position, at the outbreak of the war, he manifested so much patriotism, and so clear a comprehension of what was the duty of Iowa in aiding in the suppression of the rebellion, as to attract the attention of the people of that eminently loyal State, and rendered great service to the cause. When General Samuel R. Curtis, the Representative of the first district in Congress, resigned his seat, to take command of Iowa troops for the war, Mr. Wilson was promptly chosen to serve out the remainder of his term, and has since been re-elected to the XXXVIIIth, XXXIXth and XLth Congresses, and would have been continued there had he not positively declined a re-election in 1868.

Though one of the youngest members of the House, the leading men in it were not slow in discovering his superior abilities, and, at the beginning of the XXXVIIIth Congress, he was made Chairman of the Judiciary Committee, in many respects the most important committee of the House, though such men as George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, and Thomas Williams, of Pennsylvania, were members of the committee. The event justified Speaker Colfax's selection.

Mr. Wilson manifested rare ability in this position, and rarely reported a bill which did not pass the House. In his political views, he was radical, yet cautious, but stern and uncompromising in regard to matters which he believed to be right. He had a rare faculty of seizing on the strong points of a case, and presenting them with such clearness and force as to insure conviction. He usually did this in all the great measures he brought forward from his committee in the House.

In his argument for granting impartial suffrage in the District of Columbia, he urged the early practice of the colonies, and most of the original States, in permitting colored suffrage, the causes which led to their apostasy from this; the low grade of

Union feeling among the white inhabitants and voters of the District, and the true principle of legislation on suffrage, and closed with the following appeal to the House:

"And now, Mr. Speaker, who are the persons upon whom this bill will operate if we shall place it upon the statute-book of the nation? They are citizens of the United States and residents of the District of Columbia. It is true that many of them have black faces; but that is God's work, and he is wiser than we. Some of them have faces marked by colors uncertain; that is not God's fault. Those who hate black men most intensely can tell more than all others about this mixture of colors. But, mixed or black, they are citizens of this republic, and they have been, and are to-day, true and loyal to their Government, and this is vastly more than many of their contemners can claim for themselves.

"In this district a white skin was not the badge of loyalty, while a black skin was. No traitor breathed the air of this capital wearing a black skin. Through all the gradations of traitors, from Wirz to Jeff. Davis, criminal eyes beamed from white faces. Through all phases of treason, from the bold stroke of Lee upon the battle-field to the unnatural sympathy of those who lived within this district, but hated the sight of their country's flag, runs the blood which courses only under a white surface. While white men were fleeing from this city to join their fortunes with the rebel cause, the returning wave brought black faces in their stead. White enemies went out, black friends came in. As true as truth itself were these poor men to the cause of this imperilled nation. Wherever we have trusted them they have been true. Why will we not deal justly by them? Why shall we not, in this district, where the first effective legislative blow fell upon slavery, declare that these suffering, patient, devoted friends of the republic, shall have

the power to protect their own rights by their own ballots? Is it because they are ignorant? Sir, we are estopped from that plea. It comes too late. We did not make this inquiry in regard to the white voter. It is only when we see a man with a dark skin that we think of ignorance. Let us not stand on this view in relation to this district. The fact itself is rapidly passing away, for there is no other part of the population of the district so diligent in the acquisition of knowledge as the colored portion. In spite of the difficulties placed in their pathway to knowledge by the white residents, the colored people, adults and children, are steadily pressing on." He finished by urging the passage of the bill, which he secured a few days later by a vote of more than two thirds.

On the trial of Andrew Johnson upon the articles of impeachment preferred against him by the House of Representatives, Mr. Wilson was chosen one of the managers of the trial, and in a closing argument of great force and pertinence, sought to demostrate the guilt of the President.

Mr. Wilson has been repeatedly offered Cabinet positions, and two or three of the foreign missions in Europe were tendered him, but he has declined them all. In the winter of 1872 he was elected to the United States Senate, to succeed Hon. James Harlan.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BUTLER.

THE courage, pugnacity, fertility of genius, and patriotism, which enter so largely into the composition of BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BUTLER, are his by inheritance. His grandfather, Captain Zephaniah Butler, of Woodbury, Connecticut, fought under General Wolfe at Quebec, and served in the Continental army, during the entire war of the Revolution; while the general's father, John Butler, of Deerfield, New Hampshire, was a captain of dragoons in the war of 1812, and served for a while under General Jackson at New Orleans. And our hero's mother was of that doughty race of Scotch-Irish origin, to which belonged Colonel Cilley (also an ancestor of General Butler) "who, at the battle of Bennington, commanded a company that had never seen a cannon, and who, to quiet their apprehensions, sat astride of one while it was discharged."

John Butler, the ex-captain of dragoons, after the war, followed the sea—in the various capacities of supercargo, merchant or captain in the West India trade. In politics he was a full blooded Jeffersonian Democrat—one of eight representatives, only, of that party, in the town of Deerfield, whose Democracy isolated them, socially as well as politically, to a degree which is inconceivable to us of the present day, who knew New Hampshire a few years ago as the Democratic stronghold of New England. So that his son, Benjamin Franklin Butler,

born at Deerfield, on the 5th of November, 1818, was also "born," as has been happily said, "into the ranks of an abhorred but positive and pugnacious minority—a little Spartan band, always battling, never subdued, never victorious." Five months after his birth, the boy lost his father, who died in March, 1819, of the yellow fever, while his vessel was lying at one of the West-India Islands.

His widow, a woman of true New England energy, supported her two boys by her individual exertions; and, in 1828, removed to Lowell, then a young but thriving town of two thousand inhabitants; where, by taking boarders, she was enabled to give Benjamin better educational advantages than he had before enjoyed. From the common school he passed to the High School and from thence to the Exeter Academy, where he prepared for college. If his own predilections had been consulted, he would have gone to West Point—but his mother, who, like all New England mothers, desired to see her boy in the ministry, consulted with her pastor, and by his advice Benjamin was sent to Waterville College, in Maine, an institution recently founded by the Baptist denomination. So, with the little occasional help received from a kind New Hampshire uncle, and the scanty earnings which he was able to secure from three hours' work per day, at chair-making, in the manual labor department of the college, he gained the ambition of his young manhood—an education, and left the college halls fully determined to be a *lawyer.*

Just then there came to him a special Providence—one which we might wish would come, in like circumstances, to every youth as he leaves his Alma Mater. A good-hearted uncle, "skipper" of a fishing smack, urged him to accompany him on a trip to the coast of Labrador, saying to him, "I'll give you a bunk in the cabin, but you must do your duty before the mast,

watch and watch, like a man. I'll warrant you'll come back sound enough in the fall." So the pale-faced student accepted the kindly offer and returned from a four months' voyage with a fund of perfect health, which has lasted him ever since.

With renewed vigor the youth of twenty commenced the study of law, in the office of William Smith, Esq., of Lowell; and, being admitted to the bar in 1840, entered heart and soul into the practice of his chosen profession. He eked out his slender income by school teaching; he labored indefatigably eighteen hours out of the twenty-four; he joined the City Guard, a company of the since famous Sixth Regiment of Massachusetts, and perseveringly worked his way through every regular gradation up to the rank of colonel. Work he craved—work he would have—and work he succeeded in getting. "All was fish that came to his net." "His speeches," says a personal friend, "were smart, impudent, reckless, slap-dash affairs, showing the same general traits which have characterized him as a lawyer and politician ever since he began his career. He very soon became a decided character in Lowell and Middlesex county. He made politics and law play into each other's hands; and while he denounced the agents and overseers of the mills as tyrants and oppressors, his office was open for the establishment of all sorts of lawsuits on behalf of the male and female operatives."

From his twentieth year he was an eager, busy politician, whom every election-time found diligently "stumping" the neighboring towns; and (after 1844) regularly attending the National Democratic Conventions. His history is closely identified with that of the Democratic party in Massachusetts during twenty years, 1840–60. A "Coalitionist" in 1852, he united with the Free-soilers to crush out the old Whig party. In 1853 he was elected on the Coalition ticket, to the Legislature—and was the acknowledged leader of that party in the House, his wordy

battles with Otis P. Lord, the Whig leader, being memorable in the history of legislative strife and debate in that State.

In the election of delegates to the Constitutional Convention, which shortly followed, the Coalitionists of Lowell were ably represented by Butler, who exhibited a marked degree of ability, and of intimate acquaintance with the principles under discussion. And, though the Constitution was rejected, and Coalition died out, yet he was always loyal to his old allies, the Free-Soilers, and when in 1855, the "Know-Nothing" organization came suddenly into existence, he battled against it with all the tremendous energy of which he was capable. When the new Know Nothing governor, Gardner, recommended in his annual message the exclusion of all persons of foreign birth from the state militia; and ordered the disbandment of certain companies wholly or largely composed of such—some of which companies belonged to Colonel Butler's regiment, he refused to transmit the order and was summarily deprived of his command by the governor. He then turned around and prosecuted the adjutant-general for removing the arms from the armory—but without satisfactory result. In 1857, however, he was chosen brigadier-general by the officers of the brigade to which his regiment belonged, and received his commission from the hands of the same governor who had broken him of his colonelcy. During the following year he exhibited his usual vigor and fearlessness as counsel in the celebrated Burnham contempt case. In 1858, as the candidate of the "Liberals," Butler ran for governor but was defeated by the "Hunker" candidate. In the fall of the same year, however, the Conservatives elected him to the State Senate; and, in 1859, he was nominated, still on the Liberal ticket, for the governorship, but, although receiving the full vote of his party, was defeated by Nathaniel P. Banks. As a

legislator he opposed the old banking system and advocated what is known as the New York system; and he battled persistently and successfully for the "ten hour" bill, which gave the working men two additional hours out of the twenty-four for rest and self-improvement.

In April, 1860, General Butler was a delegate to the Democratic Convention, held at Charleston, S. C., and as a member of the committee appointed to prepare a "platform" for that party, in the coming Presidential campaign, he took a very prominent part; strongly and tenaciously insisting upon an adherence to the principles of the platform adopted at the Democratic Presidential Convention of 1856, held at Cincinnati. Both at Charleston and at Baltimore, at which city the Convention met, by adjournment, June 18th, he refused his support to any measures which looked to any further concessions to the South, on the part of the Democracy of the North. When the Convention divided, he, with other delegates who were firmly opposed to Douglas's nomination, withdrew from the meeting and nominated the "Breckinridge and Lane" ticket, and the campaign commenced. It cannot be doubted that in espousing thus Breckinridge's interest, he was misled by representations made to him by the southern leaders; for it soon became evident that the Breckinridge men at the South, and in Congress, contemplated treason. On his return to Massachusetts, he found himself the most unpopular man in the State—hooted at in the streets of Lowell, and a meeting at which he was to speak, broken up by a mob. He "had his say out," however, at another meeting, and vindicated himself—as *events*, and his own course have since done—from any complicity with treason. In the fall of the same year, he became the Breckinridge candidate for governor, but was defeated, receiving only six thousand votes.

In December, 1860, Mr. Lincoln having been elected, Butler visited Washington on party business, and there became aware of the full meaning and extent of the southern movement. *Secession* he found to be considered, by its leaders, as an accomplished fact. He reasoned earnestly but fruitlessly with them—he was offered, in return, a share in their treasonable enterprise. Spurning the offer, he waited upon the Government with advice which, as a leader of the party in power, he was entitled to give; and which, had it been accepted and acted upon, might have changed the whole aspect of subsequent events. But Mr. Buchanan was timorous and embarrassed. Then the general united with his old friend (and political opponent) in urging the Governor of Massachusetts to prepare the militia of the State for the coming struggle. Governor Andrew followed their suggestions—and what of preparation was accomplished was effected not a moment too soon. Sumter fell beneath the blows of armed treason. A call came to Boston for two full regiments. General Butler, arguing a case in the court-room, at 5 P. M., endorsed the order which called the glorious Sixth of his brigade to arms, at eleven o'clock of the next day, on Boston Common. Then he effected a loan of $50,000 from one of the Boston banks, to help off the troops; and within twenty-four hours thereafter came an order from Washington for a full brigade, and he was appointed to the command. On the 17th started the Sixth, on the 18th two regiments by steamer and the Eighth by rail, accompanied by General Butler in person. Arrived at Philadelphia on the 19th, they heard of the attack of the mob upon the Sixth, at Baltimore. Yet, amid the many conflicting rumors, and the dread uncertainty which hung over their path, the general determined to follow out his orders and march his regiment to Washington *via* Baltimore. Leaving behind them the New York Seventh, who declined to

share the risk of that route, the Eighth, on the 20th of April, took cars to Havre-de-Grace, and thence by a ferry-boat—impressed into the service—reached Annapolis, Maryland. Arriving at that place they found the town in momentary expectation of attack, and the school ship, the old "Constitution," belonging to the United States Naval Academy, fast aground and weakly manned, and at the mercy of the Secessionists. So Butler put his little ferry-boat alongside, put on board a guard and a strong crew of Marblehead sailors; and finally, with incredible exertions, the "Constitution" was towed out to a place of safety. Another morning brought a steamer bearing the New York Seventh, and ere long, despite the repeated protestations of the civic authorities and the Governor of Maryland, both regiments were landed on the grounds of the Naval Academy. Butler now needed the railroad to Washington; but the depot was locked, and the track torn up. Seizing, by force, a small and purposely damaged engine from the depot, a private soldier was soon found who could put it in order—it was speedily in running trim, and track-laying commenced.

The history of the three days' march which followed, laying track as they went all the way, forms a wonderful and romantic episode in the history of the war; but on the 25th the New York Seventh saluted the President at the White House, and Washington, as well as the whole North, breathed for the first time in many days a long sigh of relief. Butler remained at Annapolis, where his active nature found full employment in providing for, and forwarding the troops, which now began to pour into the city by thousands. Before the week ended the "Department of Annapolis," embracing the country within twenty miles of the railroad on each side, was created, and the command given to General Butler.

Meanwhile Baltimore was in the hands of the sympathizers

with treason; and as Baltimore went, so went the State. This then was the next great object of solicitude on the part of the Government. General Scott proposed to seize it by a strategic movement of four columns of three thousand men each. General Butler, who had, on the 4th of May, seized the Relay House, nine miles from Baltimore, set forth in the night of the 13th of May with nine hundred men and some artillery, and using a simple stratagem to blind the Baltimoreans to his real design, conveyed his force by rail into the city, occupied Federal Hill in the midst of a tremendous thunder-storm, planted his guards and cannon so as to command the city, and issued a "proclamation," which was to the astonished citizens the first intimation which they had, on the following morning, of the presence of Union troops in their midst. For this he was censured by Lieutenant-General Scott, but was immediately commissioned a major-general, May 16th, 1861, by President Lincoln, and assigned to the command of the new "Department of Virginia," (embracing South-eastern Virginia, North and South Carolina) with headquarters at Fortress Monroe. He found much to be done, the fort to be improved, the department to be studied and regulated, the troops to be drilled, and sundry expeditions and reconnoissances to be made in the vicinity. He prepared, also, an army for an attack upon Richmond, but it was crippled by a sudden call of most of his troops to the defence of Washington. On the 9th and 10th of June, occurred the night expedition which resulted in the affair at Big Bethel, the first reverse which the Union arms had as yet sustained, and which, although in the light of subsequent experience, only a skirmish, was a heavy blow to the popular expectation in the loyal States. Its ill-success, however, was due rather to an unfortunate mismanagement in the several commands detailed for the service,

and in the experience of the brigadier commanding the expedition, than to General Butler.

It was during the Fortress Monroe period, also, that General Butler's acute intellect solved the difficulty, which had puzzled all of our politicians and military men, as to the *status* of the slaves of masters in rebellion against the Federal government, by pronouncing them "*contraband of war*," a decision the whimsicality of which is infinitely heightened by the basis of truth upon which it is predicated. From General Butler also came (in the form of a communication to the Government, August 30th, 1861) the first distinct avowal of the right and the *duty* of the Federal Government to emancipate every slave within the Union lines. This opinion, urged as a military necessity, and fortified by unanswerable arguments, was not, however, adopted by the Administration for more than a year after.

On the 19th of August, 1861, he was relieved from the command at Fortress Monroe, and on August 26th, sailed in command of the military part of an expedition, in conjunction with Commodore Stringham, against the forts at Hatteras Inlet. They were captured August 29th (together with a large number of arms, cannon, and prisoners), and at Butler's suggestion, the forts were retained; serving subsequently as the basis of Burnside's splendid operations on the North Carolina coast.

The Government now entertained the project of a combined land and water attack on New Orleans, and the winter of 1861–62 was busily spent in preparation for the enterprise, the difficulties of which were felt to be as great as its advantages to the Union cause would be glorious. A fleet of frigates and gunboats was fitted out by Commodore Farragut; a formidable mortar fleet was got ready by Commander D. D. Porter, and the command of the co-operating land force was given to General Butler. The general was assigned to the newly

created "Department of New England," in order to recruit men for the service, and his first transports sailed from Portland, Maine, in November, but the public was not informed as to the actual point of operations until the following spring. The advance of the expedition, which was commanded by General Phelps, whose aid Butler had especially desired, reached its destination, Ship Island (sixty-five miles from New Orleans, and fifty from Mobile Bay, both of which places it thus menaced), early in March, and was followed by the bomb flotilla, and transports with a formidable armament of mortars and heavy guns. The forts, navy-yard, dry dock, storehouses, barracks, and marine hospital at Pensacola, upon which the rebels had bestowed great labor and expense, were speedily abandoned and burned by them; and about the middle of April, the fleet and flotilla gathered together in the Mississippi river, ten miles below Forts Jackson and St. Philip. Six days' unsuccessful bombardment of these forts (18th to 23d) decided Admiral Farragut to run past them, which he successfully accomplished on the 24th, and anchored before the city of New Orleans on the 25th. The forts, however, held out until the prompt and unexpected landing of Butler's army in the rear of Fort St. Philip, and its complete investment on every side, obliged their capitulation to the Federal authority. Having thus opened the Mississippi in the rear of Farragut's victorious fleet, General Butler's army came up the river and on the 1st of May, 1862, landed and took possession of New Orleans. The history of the occupation of that intensely rebel and defiant city forms perhaps the most satisfactory chapter in the history of the war of the rebellion.* "The iron heel of military law was placed

* We acknowledge with pleasure our indebtedness to Mr. Parton's Life of General Butler, for this vivid picture of his career at New Orleans. Mr. Parton's book stands without a rival in its graphic portraiture of its subject.

with relentless severity upon the stiff necks of a people whose whole social system had long been a terror to themselves and a disgrace to American civilization; and whose violent passions seemed uncontrollable even by the menace of the armed hand. But each day that passed, now gave evidence that these wretched people had found a master whose will of iron and nerves of steel were fully equal to the task, which their contumacy imposed upon him. Full of sagacity and force, he quickly evolved order from chaos. He found the poor of New Orleans starving in the midst of plenty; he regulated trade so that they were fed, and the price of food was cheapened. The business of the city was dead, and he endeavored to revive it. The currency was deranged and he improved it. The yellow fever was at hand, and the city reeked with filth; he administered sanitary science with such effect that *but one case occurred* during a season which generally desolated the city, in which, also, there were now 20,000 unacclimated northern troops. The city government was hostile and obstructive; he "straightened them out." The foreign consulates were dépôts of concealment for rebel treasure, and centres of foreign and rebel machinations against the United States; he quickly possessed himself of the money, for the use of the Government, and gave them to understand that foreign flags could not be allowed to cover domestic treason. He administered the police duty of New Orleans, in a manner hitherto unknown to "the oldest inhabitants"—he shamed into external decency, at least, the rebel women, whose hostility to the Yankee invader had overmastered the modesty of demeanor which belonged to their sex—he hung Mumford, who had pulled down the American flag from the Custom House upon the first arrival of the fleet—he assessed the prominent and wealthy rebels for the benefit of the poor, and for the expenses of his sanitary and other improvements, basing the

assessment upon their respective contributions to the rebel defence of New Orleans—he placed the railroads in running order again, he improved the levees—he took the banks "in hand" with a vigor that was revivifying and wholesome—he suppressed rampant newspapers until they learned that "*liberty* of the pen" did not necessarily mean *license*—he disarmed New Orleans, and so thoroughly sifted the whole population, that he knew the particular shade and complexion of each man's politics—he permitted registered enemies of the United States to seek more congenial homes elsewhere—he relentlessly confiscated the estates of contumacious rebels; in short, he suppressed the rampant minority which had carried the State out of the Union, and fostered the self-respect, protected the interests, maintained the rights, and elevated the scale of civilization among the people of Louisiana, both white and black, bond and free."

He was not allowed, however, to carry out the splendid work of regeneration which he had commenced. Intriguing diplomatists and enemies whose interests had been affected by his management in New Orleans, succeeded in procuring his recall; and on the 16th of November, 1862, he was relieved of his command by General Banks. The policy of conciliation, to which his successor gave a fair trial, proved itself an immediate, complete, and undeniable failure. General Butler's return home was a series of honorable welcomes from the cities and communities of the loyal States through which he passed, and he was presented, by Congress, with one of the captured swords of the rebel General Twiggs.

During the year 1863, General Butler, being without a command, rendered good service to the Government by his public speeches in various places; and in July and November of that year was, for a short time, invested with the chief mili-

tary command of New York city, which had recently been the scene of the terrible "draft riots."

When Lieutenant-General Grant, in the spring of 1864, inaugurated his great and final campaign, he assigned to General Butler the command of the Army of the James, which was composed of the corps formerly known as the Army of Eastern Virginia and North Carolina, the 18th corps from Louisiana, and the 10th corps, partly of colored troops, from (General Gillmore's) the Department of the South. To his division of the Grand Army was assigned the duty of seizing, by an adroit manœuvre, the position of Bermuda Hundred, on the south bank of the James, midway between Richmond and Petersburg; and the interposing of such a force between those two cities, as should isolate them from each other and result in the capture of the latter. This part of the programme was skilfully carried out by General Butler; Bermuda Hundred (on the 4th of May, 1864) was occupied and fortified; on the 7th, the railroad was cut below Petersburg. A strong but unavailing attack was made upon Fort Darling on May 13th; and the repeated attempts of the enemy (21st and 24th), to drive him from his own position, were each handsomely repulsed. On the 10th, an attempt was made to capture Petersburg; General Gillmore, with about three thousand five hundred troops attacking it on the north, General Kautz's cavalry force on the south, and General Butler, with the gunboats assaulting from the north and east. The plan was partially and handsomely carried out by Butler and Kautz, the latter of whom entered the city and maintained a hand-to-hand fight for sometime; but the enterprise was finally rendered abortive by General Gillmore's declining, with the force at his command, to attack the rebel works.

During the summer General Butler's forces had been cutting

a canal across the neck of a peninsula, called Farrar's Island, formed by a six-mile bend in the River James. This neck of land was only half a mile across, so that the canal, it was expected, would greatly shorten and facilitate the passage of gunboats on the river. As it, also, somewhat imperilled Fort Darling and flanked the rebel position at Howlett's, it would oblige them to erect new and more extended lines of defence; and the Confederates made a desperate attempt, on the 12th of August, to shell out the negroes who were at work on the canal, or "Dutch Gap," as it was called. In order to relieve the ditchers from the annoyance to which they were subjected by the heavy fire from rebel rams and batteries, an attack was made upon the Confederate position at Strawberry Plains, on the 14th, which resulted in a Union victory, and was followed by another success at Deep Bottom, on the 16th. Rebel prisoners were also set at work in the "Gap." While these movements were in progress, Grant seized the opportune moment to attempt to gain possession of the Weldon Railroad; which was, after repeated and desperate fighting, secured and torn up for a considerable distance, on the 21st. In all the subsequent movements of the Union forces before Richmond and Petersburg, the Army of the James, under General Butler, contributed their full share of heroic fighting, patient waiting, and hard work.

Early in the month of December, an expedition was planned by General Grant against Wilmington, North Carolina, which had long been one of the principal channels by which foreign supplies of arms, ammunition, clothing, etc., had reached the Confederacy. Its formidable defences, and the peculiar nature of its coast, rendered its successful closure against blockade-runners almost impossible; a fact at which both the Government and the officers of the blockading squadron felt deeply chagrined. The naval portion of the expedition, which set

sail on the 9th, was commanded by Admiral Porter, and the land forces, which sailed on the 12th, had been drawn from the Army of the James, and were commanded by General Butler in person.

Arriving off New Inlet on the 24th, the squadron opened a fire upon Fort Fisher, which, for rapidity, intensity and weight of metal, was hitherto unexampled in the history of warfare. On the 25th, the land forces were disembarked; a joint assault was ordered at evening, the troops attacking the land face of the fort, while the fleet was to bombard its sea front. Upon moving forward to the attack, however, General Weitzel, who accompanied the column, came to the conclusion, from a careful reconnoissance of the fort, that "it would be butchery to order an assault;" and General Butler, having formed the same opinion from other information, re-embarked his troops, and sailed for Hampton Roads. The opinion of General Weitzel, an experienced engineer officer, to the effect that the fort had been "substantially unimpaired" by the terrific naval fire to which it had been for several days subjected, did not satisfy Admiral Porter, whose report to the Naval Department reflected severely upon General Butler's course; and upon that general's return to the James river, he was relieved from the command of the Army of the James, and ordered to report at Lowell, Massachusetts, his residence.

The successful capture of Fort Fisher and Wilmington, two weeks later, by Admiral Porter and General Terry, greatly increased the popular dissatisfaction with General Butler—but his course seems to have been fully justified by unimpeachable evidence which was subsequently adduced. It was, however the last active military service performed by General Butler.

In November 1866, he was elected on the Republican ticket, Representative in the XLth Congress for the fifth district of

Massachusetts, receiving 9,021 votes against 2,838 votes for Northend, Democrat. During the session of 1867–8 he took a conspicuous part as one of the Managers of the impeachment and trial of President Johnson. His speech at the opening of the impeachment trial was pronounced, even by his opponents, the ablest of its kind on record.

Of General Butler, as a lawyer, it has been well said by one who knew him intimately, that "At the criminal terms of the Middlesex Court, he has done a greater amount of business than anybody else, and his reputation at present is that of the most successful criminal lawyer of the State. His devices and shifts to obtain an acquittal and release are absolutely endless and innumerable. He is never daunted or baffled until the sentence is passed and put in execution, and the reprieve, pardon, or commutation is refused. An indictment must be drawn with the greatest nicety, or it will not stand his criticism. A verdict of "guilty" is nothing to him—it is only the beginning of the case; he has fifty exceptions, a hundred motions in arrest of judgment; and after that, the *habeas corpus* and personal replevin. The opposing counsel never begins to feel safe until the evidence is all in, for he knows not what new dodges Butler may spring upon him. He is more fertile in expedients than any man who practices law among us." And this same fertility of resource did the country rare good service during the late war of the rebellion. Yet he is not logical—his statements and arguments, when closely analyzed, are frequently mere sophistical deceptions, so ingeniously constructed, however, that he often believes them himself. But they are always ingenious, bewildering, set with homely illustrations, full of insinuations, and put with such vehemence and in such plain Anglo-Saxon, as often to totally overwhelm his adversary.

Anecdotes innumerable are told of his audacity, and quickness

of retort. Upon one of his first cases being called into court he said, in the usual way, "Let notice be given!" "In what paper?" asked the aged clerk of the court, a strenuous Whig. "In the *Lowell Advertiser*," was the reply; the *Advertiser* being a Jackson paper, never mentioned in a Lowell court; of whose mere existence, few there present would confess a knowledge. "The *Lowell Advertiser?*" said the clerk with disdainful nonchalance, "I don't know such a paper." "Pray, Mr. Clerk," said young Butler, "do not interrupt the proceedings of the Court; for if you begin to tell us what you *don't* know, there will be no time for any thing else." So, at a later date, and not long after the execution of Professor Webster, of Harvard College, for the murder of Dr. Parkman, when he was examining a professor of that college as a witness, and was "badgering" him in his usual not very respectful manner, the opposing counsel appealed to the court, reminding them that the witness was an educated gentleman "and a Harvard professor." Butler contemptuously replied "I am aware of it, your Honor; we hung one of them the other day."

In the impeachment trial, in 1868, the Hon. Fernando Wood, of New York, received one of those scathing replies which Butler can strike out instantaneously at "a white heat." Mr. Wood undertook to protest to the "replication" entered before the Court of Impeachment, on the ground that he, as one of "the people of the United States" in whose name it was made, objected to it. General Butler immediately turned upon him with—"The representatives of the people usually represent them, but the gentleman (Mr. Wood) has not even the merit of originality in his objection. The form is one that has been used 500 years, lacking eight. The objection was made to it once before, and only once, when the people of England, smarting under the usurpation and tyranny of Charles I., not having any provision

in their Constitution as we have, by which that tyrant could be brought to justice outside of their Constitution, and in a perfectly legal manner, as I understand and believe, brought Charles to justice. When proclamation was made that they were proceeding in the name of all the people of England, one of the adherents rose and said, 'No, all the people do not consent to it,' so that the gentleman has at least a precedent for what he has done; and I wish we could follow out the precedent in this House, because the Court inquired who made that objection, and tried to find the offender for the *purpose of punishing him* [laughter]; but as he concealed himself he could not be found, and *he* afterward *turned out to be a woman* [laughter], the wife of General Fairfax, who ratted on that occasion from the rest of the Commons." And, then, in reply to some strictures in which Wood had indulged concerning an implied lack of courtesy on the part of the House Managers—he quietly remarked that he "hoped the House would not receive any lectures or suggestions upon propriety of language, or propriety of conduct, *from the gentleman who stands as yet under its censure for a violation of all parliamentary rules;*" an allusion to an event of only a few weeks previous occurrence, which effectually "squelched" the leader of the "Mozart Democracy."

Since the election of General Grant to the Presidency, General Butler has contrived to occupy a prominent position before the public most of the time. He had become reconciled to President Grant before his election (they had previously been on very bad terms in consequence of the Fort Fisher affair), and he has ranged himself among the leading supporters of the administration. His relations with other members of the Republican party and the Democrats in Congress have been at times very bitter and unpleasant. He quarrelled with Speaker Blaine, with most of the Massachusetts members of Congress, with both the Massachusetts Senators, with Governor Hawley of Connecticut, and with promi-

nent Republicans of New York, Ohio, and Illinois. In 1871, he announced his purpose of running for Governor of Massachusetts and took the stump in his own behalf before the nominating convention. He canvassed steadily and vigorously, and at the meeting of the convention was very sanguine of a nomination, but the union of the friends of the other candidates on Mr. Washburn caused his defeat, and though evidently vexed and chagrined, he took his disappointment very calmly, and did what he could to help the election of the successful candidate. Of late he has sought to be the leader of the Republican party in the House, but finds too many bolters from his rather imperious rule. He is a warm defendant of President Grant and of all his measures, but is supposed not to be very well pleased with Senator Wilson's nomination, as he was dissatisfied with him for not favoring his nomination for Governor. General Butler is in fact a singular compound. He has many good traits: we believe he means to be patriotic, and sincerely thinks that the measures he urges are for the good of the country. He is unscrupulous, eager for power, and ready to adopt almost any means to obtain it; but though he has been often charged with venality and corruption, and a favorite taunt of his adversaries has been "the spoons," referring to his rigid measures of confiscation in New Orleans, and the supposed wealth he obtained by plunder there, we are satisfied that he is *not* guilty of taking bribes or of any frauds in his civil administration during the war, or his congressional career since. Had he been thus corrupt, there were abundant opportunities to have proved it conclusively; but every suit where it has been attempted to prove anything of the sort has utterly broken down, not from his skill in managing it, but from absolute lack of proof.

The general is so erratic, and so careless of the means by which he accomplishes his purposes, that he will always have enemies, in the party with which he acts, and in that which he opposes. He is, in fact, an Ishmaelite, and about as dangerous to his friends as to his foe.

HON. WILLIAM D. KELLEY.

THE Republican party is the legitimate heir of the old Federal and Whig parties—the parties of Washington and Webster—which, in the ancient and mediæval periods of the Republic, as they may be termed, illustrated the sentiment and the idea of nationality as opposed to the heresy of State sovereignty.

There is, nevertheless, flowing in the veins of this great Republican organization much of the best blood of the old Democratic party. The men who adopted the political teachings of Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence, and the inspirer of the ordinance of 1789, who heartily believed the great American doctrines of the freedom and equality of all men, and the power and duty of the nation to protect the national domain from the pollution of human slavery, passed, by a natural transition, into the Republican ranks when the Democratic party abandoned the faith of its fathers, and became the embodiment of a "creed outworn."

Among the men of the Democratic party who earliest separated from "its decaying forms," and contributed to organize a new party, in the light of truth and reason, on the basis of inherent, inalienable right, was the subject of this sketch—WILLIAM DARRAH KELLEY.

He was born in the Northern Liberties of Philadelphia, on the 12th of April, 1814. His grandfather, Major John Kelley

was a native of Salem county, New Jersey, and served throughout the Revolution as an officer of the Continental line. The son of this Revolutionary officer, and the father of the subject of this memoir—David Kelley—removed from New Jersey to Philadelphia, where he married a lady of Bucks county, Pennsylvania—Miss Hannah Darrah. The cloud of financial embarrassment, which, at the close of the war of 1812, darkened the horizon, cast its deep shadow over the fortunes of Mr. Kelley; and by his death, in 1816, his widow was left, without an estate, to support and educate a dependent family of four children, the youngest of whom—William—was but two years of age. Mrs. Kelley struggled nobly and well to fulfil this great trust, and lived to witness the consummation of her most ambitious hopes in the prosperity and advancement of her distinguished son.

At eleven years of age, it became necessary that William should earn his own living. He accordingly left school, and became an errand boy in a book store, then a copy-reader in the office of the "*Philadelphia Inquirer*" newspaper, and finally an apprentice to Messrs. Rickards & Dubosq, manufacturing jewellers, of Philadelphia. He attained his freedom in the spring of 1834. This was the era of the removal of the deposits from the United States Bank; and Mr. Kelley's first experience in political leadership was gained in encouraging and organizing the resistance of the Democratic workingmen to the tyrannous demands of the Whig capitalists of Philadelphia. The stand he took on this question rendered it difficult for him to obtain employment in his native city. He accordingly removed to Boston, and at once secured a situation in the establishment of Messrs. Clark and Curry. In Boston, the spirit of New England culture took deep hold upon his nature. While laboring with characteristic industry in the most difficult branch of his trade—

the art of enamelling—and achieving a high reputation as a skilful and tasteful workman, he improved his scholarship by solitary study; and his contributions to the newspapers of the day, and written and extemporaneous lectures and addresses before public audiences, established his reputation as a writer and speaker of ability and power, in association even with such men as Bancroft, Brownson, Alexander H. Everett, Channing and Emerson.

In 1839, he returned to Philadelphia, and entered, as a student of law, the office of Colonel James Page, a local leader of the Democratic party, and the postmaster of Philadelphia. On April 17, 1841, he was admitted to the bar of the several courts of his native city. His advancement in the profession was immediate and rapid; while, in every political canvass, local and national, his stirring addresses attracted large audiences, and rendered him one of the most conspicuous figures in the Democratic party. In January, 1845, he was appointed by the attorney-general of the State—Hon. John K. Kane—to conduct, in connection with Francis Wharton, Esq., who has since become celebrated as a writer on criminal law, the pleas of the Commonwealth in the courts of Philadelphia. In March, 1846, Governor Shunk appointed Mr. Kelley a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, a tribunal whose jurisdiction was co-extensive with the common law, chancery and ecclesiastical courts of England. In 1851, he was elected to the same bench, under the new Constitution of the State, upon an independent ticket, in defiance of the attempted proscription of the Democratic party organization, which was embittered against him for his course in the contested election case of Reed and Kneass. This was a triumphant vindication by the people of the justice and integrity of his action in that cause.

But Judge Kelley did not confine himself to the topics of his

profession or to the discussion of political questions. The protection of the weak and down-trodden, the reformation of the ignorant and vicious, and the promotion of education, have ever found in him an eloquent and powerful advocate. His remarkable powers of oratory, give additional effect to his chaste and polished style, and few public speakers have proved so effective. We offer the following passages from an address of his before the Linnæan society of Pennsylvania college, Gettysburg, on the "Characteristics of the Age," delivered over twenty years ago, as giving an idea of the felicity and beauty of his style, as a writer. The earnestness and the clear ringing tones of the orator are wanting to give it full effect.

"I would not disparage the value of the 'little learning' which enables a man to read and write his mother tongue with facility. When 'commerce is king,' the ability to do this is little less than essential to the physical well-being of the citizen. Under such government the receipt-book peaceably enough performs a large share of the functions of the embattled wall and armed retainers of the days when force was law. But to rise above the commercial value of these slender attainments, he who can read the language of Shakspeare and Milton, Johnson and Addison, Shelley and Wordsworth, has the key to the collected wisdom of his race. The farms around his workshop, the property of others, present to his view a landscape which is his, and to him belongs every airy nothing to which poet ever gave habitation or name. The sages of the most remote past obey his call as counsellors and friends; and in the company of prophet and apostle he may approach the presence of the Most High. The value of such a gift is inestimable. Wisdom and justice would make it the certain heritage of every child born in the commonwealth.

* * * *

"The spirit of commerce is essentially selfish. Voyages are projected for profit. The merchant, whose liberal gifts surprise the world, chaffers in his bargains. Not for man is a family

of brothren, therefore, are the blessing of this age. They are the gifts of a common Father, but they come not, like light and dew, insensibly to all. They mark the achievements of our race, and manifest the master-spirit of the age, but hitherto they have been felt but slightly by the masses of mankind. Wealth increases; but its aggregation into few hands takes place with ever-growing rapidity. The comforts of life abound; but when the markets of the world are glutted, hunger is in the home of the artisan. Over-production causes the legitimate effects of famine. The ingenuity of political economists is vainly taxed for the means of preventing the accumulation of surplus material and fabrics. And while warehouse and granary groan with repletion, heartless theory points to the laboring population reduced to want and pauperism, and with dogmatic emphasis, inquires if the increase of population cannot be legally restrained? The state of the market shows that there are more men than commerce requires, and a just system of economy would adapt the supply to the demand!

* * * *

"Ancient philosophy did not recognize utility as an aim. It contemned, as mechanical and degrading, the discovery or invention that improved man's physical condition. Socrates invented no steam-engine or spinning-jenny. The soul was his constant study. Regardless of his own estate, he cared not for the material comfort of others. Indifferent to the world himself, he sought to raise his disciples above it. A disputatious idler and a scoffer at utility, he fashioned Plato and swayed the world for centuries. Our philosophy comes from Bacon. It only deals with the wants of man and uses of nature. The body is the object of its solicitude. Earth is the field of its hopes. Time bounds its horizon. Fruit, material fruit—the multiplication of the means of temporal enjoyment—was the end Lord Bacon had in view, when, denouncing the schools, he gave his theories to the world. Time and experience have vindicated his methods. But have they not also shown, that a system which offers no sanction to virtue and no restraints to vice, whose only instruments are the senses, and whose only

subject is material law, may impart to a world the vices which made the wisest also the meanest of mankind."

In August, 1856, Judge Kelley was nominated, while absent from home, as the Republican candidate for Congress from the fourth Congressional district of Pennsylvania. He was not elected; for the Republican idea had made at that day but feeble impression in Philadelphia, and the party was without means or organization. During that canvass he made his first great Republican address on *Slavery in the Territories*, in Spring Garden Hall, Philadelphia. Motives of delicacy prompted him to resign his judicial office immediately after the election, and he returned, after a term of nine years and nine months on the bench, to the private practice of his profession. In October 1860 he was elected on the Republican ticket to the seat in Congress to which he has been ɐʌıɟ . times since returned by his constituents. On his return from the special session of Congress which convened on July 4th 1861, he participated as counsel for the Government, in the prosecution of the pirates of the rebel privateer, "Jeff Davis," and made a brilliant closing argument in that great State trial.

In Congress he has spoken at length upon every national topic; and, in most instances, he has borne the standard of his party, and planted it far in advance, holding it with firm and steady hand, until his friends occupied the position.

As early as January 7th, 1862, he detected the fatal errors of the military policy of McClellan, and warned the country of the incompetency of that officer, in an impromptu reply to the speech of Vallandigham, on the Trent case. On the 16th of January, 1865, he vindicated, in an elaborate speech, the justice and necessity of impartial suffrage as a fundamental condition of the restoration of Republican Governments in the rebel States. On the 22d of June, 1865, in an address on "the Safe-

guards of Personal Liberty," at Concert Hall, Philadelphia, he criticised the policy of reconstruction foreshadowed by President Johnson in his North Carolina proclamation, and indicated a plan of action, in respect to the rebel States, which has been since substantially embodied in the reconstruction acts of Congress. In his speech on "Protection to American Labor," delivered in the House of Representatives, on the 31st of January, 1866, he indicated a financial policy, in reference to the payment of the public debt, which Congress has fully adopted in the repeal of the cotton tax, and the modification of the duties on manufactured products. In connection with these remarkable speeches, may be mentioned his speech of the 27th of February, 1866, on "the Constitutional Regulation of Suffrage." Two of Judge Kelley's speeches in Congress—that of January 16th, 1865, on Suffrage, and that of January 31st, 1866, on Labor—have had more extensive circulation than the speeches of any other American statesman. More than half a million copies of each have been printed and distributed.

At the first session of the XXXIXth Congress, Judge Kelley introduced the bill, which was afterwards passed with certain modifications, to secure the right of suffrage to the colored population of the District of Columbia.

On the evening of the 22d of February, 1868, he spoke in favor of the impeachment of the President, and more recently participated in the debate in the House of Representatives on the resolution of Mr. Broomall, of Pennsylvania, to prohibit hereditary exclusion from the right of suffrage, and defended the position taken by him in his more extended speech, two years before, on the Constitutional Regulation of Suffrage.

We have not space even to mention the numerous speeches and addresses of Judge Kelley in and out of Congress. He has addressed his fellow citizens from the lakes to the gulf.

In the spring of 1867, he visited the Southern States, and in a series of addresses at New Orleans, Montgomery, and other cities, spoke earnest and eloquent words of hope and encouragement to the people of the South. The noble wisdom and tender humanity which pervade these speeches, stamp them as the production of a statesman and philanthropist. They were words of friendly counsel, which the people of the South would do well to heed.

A comprehensive, national character, and a generous, intense, all-embracing humanity, have always characterized Judge Kelley's political opinions. He saw, in the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, conclusive evidence that the Democratic party had become sectional; and he left it. He found that Democracy, which once had meant civil and religious liberty, equality, justice, advancement, the greatest good of the greatest number, had come to mean proscription of opinion, aristocracy, tyranny, disorder, slavery; and he abandoned it.

He is therefore one of the fathers of the National Republican party. The sincerity and earnestness of his convictions would always gain for him the attention of the House of Representatives, if it were not commanded by the striking and engaging peculiarities of his eloquence. He appears with equal advantage in impromptu reply, and in elaborately prepared address. His vehement declamation, delivered in tones of voice marvellously rich and powerful, thrills, on occasions, the members upon the floor, and the listeners in the galleries; as when, on the memorable night of the 22d of February, he exclaimed:—

"Sir, the bloody and untilled fields of the ten unreconstructed States, the unsheeted ghosts of the two thousand murdered negroes in Texas, cry, if the dead ever invoke vengeance, for the punishment of Andrew Johnson."

Judge Kelley is certainly one of the ablest of the public men whom Philadelphia has sent to the national councils. She has too few of such men—men of progressive ideas, commanding talents, and national fame: and when one has served her, as Judge Kelley has, through twelve years of eventful history, it becomes her duty, as a just community, to cherish and honor him.

There are men who though generally just and fair in their intercourse with their fellows, yet under the pressure of partisan dictation, or to gain some paltry end, will be guilty of participation in acts of the grossest injustice, defending themselves by the Jesuit maxim: "The end justifies the means." With this class William D. Kelley has no affinities. In political action, as everywhere else, he is the soul of honor, and he would scorn to do an act of injustice to a political opponent as much as to his dearest personal friend. An instance of this occurred just before the close of the session of Congress in June, 1872. The leaders of Judge Kelley's own party were endeavoring to put through a bill received from the Senate, which was intensely offensive to the opposition, by the party whip and spur, and were even ready to risk the calling of an extra session of Congress in order to accomplish it. The opposition were resisting by every constitutional means, in the hope of obtaining a modification from a Committee of Conference which should render it less objectionable. Judge Kelley, seeing the unfairness of the course pursued by the party leaders, boldly threw himself into the breach, demanded and obtained an extension of time and a new reference, which led to the desired modification of the bill. Few men have the moral courage to do such a thing in defiance of party rule. Only a strong man could have done it successfully; but we believe there was no man of either party in the House of Representatives who did not in his heart of hearts honor Judge Kelley for his daring and manliness, while very few would have the moral courage to follow his example in such an emergency.

HENRY LAURENS DAWES, LL. D.,

REPRESENTATIVE IN CONGRESS FROM MASSACHUSETTS.

IN Western Massachusetts, "the Switzerland of America," there is a small town perched upon the summit and slopes of some of the higher hills which constitute the outlying spurs of the Green Mountain range. It is called Cummington, a bleak, barren region, where the deep snows settle in the later autumn, and last till May, so deep, that some years ago, the member of the State Legislature from that town could only reach Boston by travelling forty miles on snow-shoes, and drawing his trunk on a hand-sled. It is pleasant after its fashion in the summer time, but the summer is short, and altogether it is one of those towns from which the stranger would expect very little. Yet this little mountain town has raised much more than an average crop of *men*. Some of the most illustrious names in our history and literature were born there: clergymen, poets, philosophers and statesmen, all acknowledge this mountain hamlet as their birth-place. In one of its farm-houses, HENRY LAURENS DAWES was born, October 30th, 1816, and on its sterile and ungenerous soil the labor of his boyhood and early youth was bestowed. But the boy had his ambition. He desired above all things to obtain an education, and though like most farmer boys he had a hard struggle to attain it, yet he accomplished his purpose, acquiring sufficient preparatory training to enable him to enter Yale Col-

lege in 1835, whence he graduated with a creditable standing in 1839. After his graduation, he went to Greenfield, Massachusetts, where he commenced the study of the law, editing at the same time the *Greenfield Gazette.* In 1842, he was admitted to the bar, and removed to North Adams, Massachusetts, where he settled in the practice of his profession, but while seeking business busied himself with the editorship of the *North Adams Transcript.* Mr. Dawes makes no pretension to genius, he is not a man who divines all knowledge by intuitions, without study or research; but he is an industrious, painstaking worker, of sound, clear mind, a good deal of tact, and a faculty of insight into apparently intricate matters, which is worth much more than genius. These traits of character were ere long perceived by the enterprising, intelligent people of North Adams, and the young lawyer was after awhile compelled to relinquish the *Transcript* into other hands by the pressure of his legal business. In 1848, and again in 1849 and 1852, he was elected to the State Legislature; in 1850 he was a State Senator; in 1853 he was a member of the State Constitutional Convention. In all these positions he was so able, clear-headed and industrious, that his constituents were fully satisfied with him, and would have been glad to have retained him longer in the legislature. But in 1853 he was appointed District Attorney for the Western District of the State, and removed to Pittsfield, the county seat. Here he soon had a circle of warm friends, and continued to be fully occupied with his professional duties till 1857, when having been elected the previous autumn to Congress from the tenth or western district of Massachusetts, he took his seat in that body. He has been continued in that place of honor by his constituents to the present time, a period of sixteen years. In congress he has proved one of the most useful members of that body; never domineering, never neglectful of his duties,

but always punctual, prompt and painstaking, whatever work is assigned to him will be always well done. He was for several terms chairman of the important Committee on Elections, and in the XLIId Congress was made chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, which gives him the virtual leadership of the House. He was a delegate to the Philadelphia "Loyalists" Convention of 1866.

Mr. Dawes is thoroughly committed to the Republican party and its measures, but he is not a bitter partisan, and retains the respect and esteem of all parties in the House. At home, he has the reputation of being an estimable citizen in all the relations of life, and is greatly honored by the very intelligent constituency he has served so long.

BENJAMIN GRATZ BROWN,

GOVERNOR OF MISSOURI.

NO one of the western States, certainly no western or southwestern slave State, has reared so many men of eminent ability in our national affairs as Kentucky. Whether this pre-eminence is due to her genial climate, her fertile soil, her bold and beautiful scenery, or to the stock from which her sons have come, is a legitimate subject of inquiry; but the fact remains that among her people, even those without much education, there is an intelligence and thoughtfulness in regard to public affairs which is not found to anything like the same extent in other States. They may be in error, a majority of them were grievously so during the late war, but you will hardly find a Kentuckian so ignorant or stupid that he has not made out, to his own satisfaction at least, the reasons which justify his political action. The educated class in the State, whatever their political views, are among the best specimens of the thoroughbred gentleman in our country. Highly intelligent, and holding clear and decided views on all State and national questions, they are frank, courteous, and manly, somewhat impetuous, as is natural from their Virginian ancestry and their early training; but they are men to be loved and trusted.

It is from one of the best families of Kentucky that the subject of our sketch is sprung. The Hon. John Brown, his grandfather, was born in Rockbridge, Va., in 1757; was chosen a Representative in Congress from a western district of Virginia,

and remained in that capacity from 1789 to 1793, being the co-temporary and esteemed friend of the founders of the Republic. He subsequently removed to Kentucky, and settled at Frankfort. Here his abilities and honesty were soon appreciated, and when Kentucky was admitted into the Union he was one of her first senators, and during the first session of the VIIIth Congress was President *pro tem.* of the Senate. He was a warm supporter and life-long personal friend of President Jefferson. He died at Frankfort, Kentucky, in 1837, at the venerable age of 80 years. His son, Judge Mason Brown (father of Governor Brown), was eminent as a jurist, and an upright, enlightened magistrate. He was for some years one of the judges of the Court of Appeals of Kentucky. Governor Brown's ancestry on the maternal side was no less distinguished. His mother's father, the Hon. Jesse Bledsoe, was a distinguished advocate and jurist of Kentucky, and represented that State in the Senate of the United States. He was a Professor of Law in the University of Transylvania, and Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of Kentucky.

Benjamin Gratz Brown was born in Lexington, Ky., May 28, 1826. From early childhood he was a fearless, manly boy, not simply physically brave—that were but an ordinary merit in his native State—but possessing that higher moral courage which made him ready to take the unpopular side, if he believed it to be right. He was carefully and very thoroughly educated under his father's eye, taking the full course of the Transylvania University at Lexington, and then entering Yale College as a junior, from whence he graduated with high honors in 1847. He had already developed an antagonism to slavery at the time of his graduation, and though he pursued his legal studies in his father's office, and was very thoroughly qualified to enter the profession in Kentucky, he preferred to fight his way to reputation as a reformer in a wider field. He removed to St.

Louis in 1849, and there commenced the practice of his profession. His extensive legal attainments, the carefulness with which he prepared his cases, and his eloquence as a pleader, remarkable even in that city of orators, soon won him business and fame. In 1852, before he had completed his twenty-sixth year, he was elected a member of the State Legislature, and being repeatedly re-elected, served for six years in that body. But he was eager to enter more fully upon the work to which he felt that he was called, and in 1854, having assisted in founding the *Missouri Democrat* (which has been for the past fifteen or sixteen years the leading political paper of St. Louis on the side of Reform and Progress), he became its editor-in-chief the same year, and continued in that position until 1859. From its start it advocated the Free Soil doctrines, and attacked slavery with an earnestness and vehemence which insured opposition. When the Republican party was organized, Mr. Brown and his journal rallied under its flag. He labored zealously for Frémont in the campaign of 1856, and in 1857 delivered a speech in the legislature, which, by its logical power, its caustic denunciation, and its vehement eloquence, roused the people against the aggressions of the slave power, and led the way to the fiercest political contests.

The moral courage and daring which had been so conspicuous a trait in his boy-life came into fuller and grander play as he and his Free Soil associates preached the gospel of freedom throughout Missouri, in the legislature, in the *Missouri Democrat*, in public assemblies, and everywhere, with the earnestness and eloquence which resulted from thorough conviction of the truth of what they were urging. They were for years in the minority, but they were undismayed. Failing to subdue the fearless journalist by political proscription, he was often menaced with personal violence. On one occasion he received a shot through

the knee, and was so severely injured that he still suffers from the effects of the wound. The zeal, energy, and sagacity of the emancipationists triumphed; and in 1857 the Free Soil candidate for governor came within less than 500 votes of being elected. But this partial defeat was compensated by the strong Union sentiment which was engrafted in the community, and which rendered Missouri proof against the blandishments of secession.

Thenceforward, for four years, the side of freedom gained strength daily; and men, who had at first scouted the idea of Missouri being a free State, came cautiously to look with more favor on it, and by tens and twenties joined the ranks of the Free Soilers. And this result was owing more largely to the incessant and patriotic labors of B. Gratz Brown than to those of any other man, or, indeed, of all the rest put together.

Then came the war. St. Louis was at first like a house divided against itself. The secession element was strong and bold, and there was for a time great danger of the city's falling into the hands of the rebels, who held control at first of the State government. But the courage of the little band of heroes never faltered. As wise in counsel as he was patriotic in sentiment and daring in action, Mr. Brown, in consultation with the gallant Lyon, advised the attack and capture of Camp Jackson, near St. Louis, in May, 1861, and that measure, successfully carried out, relieved St. Louis from its danger, and secured the State to the Union. On that occasion Mr. Brown commanded a regiment of militia, and aided materially in accomplishing the desired result. Soon after he raised a regiment of volunteers, and in the field, as elsewhere, gave evidence of soldierly ability, and of his earnest devotion to the national cause. He was commissioned brigadier-general, and was foremost in organizing those movements which resulted in the ordinance of freedom in 1864. In 1863 he was

elected United States Senator from Missouri to fill out an unexpired term of four years, and taking his seat in the Senate, although one of its youngest members, he soon won the reputation of being an able legislator and statesman. He was placed on the Committees on Military Affairs, Pacific Railroad, Indian Affairs, Public Buildings and Grounds, and Printing, and was chairman of the Committee on Contingent Expenses of the Senate, and for a part of his term of the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds. It is very seldom the case that a young senator on first entering the Senate is placed on so many and so important committees.

Retiring from the Senate, Governor Brown engaged in private and professional pursuits, carrying into daily life the love of harmony, tolerance, and equal rights he had so long advocated in public. He was not, however, allowed to remain in retirement. Obeying the call of thousands of his fellow-citizens, he accepted the nomination for Governor of Missouri, and sustained by coalition of the Republicans and Democrats, he was triumphantly elected. The vote was as follows: For Brown, 104,286; for McClurg, 62,369; majority, 41,917. The great issue in this campaign was the removal of the proscriptive measures which the angry passions incident to the war had placed in force.

The events of Governor Brown's administration are too recent to need recapitulation. His powerful influence has been exerted in repairing the social disturbances as well as the material ravages of the war; in resisting every tendency toward repudiation, however plausible may be the pretext, and in securing the just rights of all citizens. Under his wise management of her public affairs, Missouri is rapidly developing her immense resources, and bids fair to rival Pennsylvania as the great iron-producing region of the Union.

Governor Brown has been among the number of those who,

though identified with the Republican party by long years of active and earnest labor in its service in the days when it cost to be a Republican, have yet felt dissatisfied with the present administration and its management. So pronounced was this dissatisfaction in Missouri that the leading men of what was known as the bolting party (that which elected him as governor), with Governor Brown at their head, called a convention at Cincinnati on the 3d, 4th, and 5th of May, 1872, to consider the situation, and perhaps propose candidates for the Presidency.

Governor Brown is undoubtedly ambitious, but we think none of those who know him would accuse him of having been prompted by a spirit of self-seeking in this movement. Whether the views they entertained were correct or not, they were unquestionably patriotic and in earnest in putting them before the people. The result of that convention was one unquestionably unexpected by Governor Brown, though so far as the Vice-Presidency is concerned, it is doubtful if a more judicious selection could have been made. His letter of acceptance of the nomination, addressed to the committee who had notified him of the action of the convention, is manly, honorable, and straight-forward; and its manly and generous tone must meet the approval of many who are not disposed to sustain the ticket. It is as follows:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, JEFFERSON CITY. *May* 31, 1872.

GENTLEMEN: Your letter advising me of the action of the Liberal Republican Convention at Cincinnati has been received, and I return through you my acknowledgment of the honor which has been conferred upon me.

I accept the nomination as a candidate for Vice-President, and indorse most cordially the resolutions setting forth the principles on which the appeal is made to the whole people of the United States.

A century is closing upon our experience of republican government, and while that lapse of time has witnessed a great expansion of our free institutions, yet it has not been without illustration also of grave dangers to the stability of such a system. Of those successfully encountered it is needless to speak; of those which remain to menace us the most threatening are provided against, as I firmly believe, in the wise and pacific measures proposed by your platform. It has come to be the practice of those elevated

to positions of national authority to regard public service but as a means to retain power. This results in substituting a mere party organization for the Government itself, which constitutes a control amenable to no laws or moralities, impairs all independent thought, enables a few to rule the many, and makes personal allegiance the road to favor. It requires little forecast to perceive that this will wreck all liberties unless there be interposed a timely reform of the administration from its highest to its lowest station, which shall not only prevent abuses, but likewise take away the incentive to their practice. Wearied with the contentions that are carried on in avarice of spoils, the country demands repose, and resents the efforts of officials to dragoon it again into partisan hostilities. And I will zealously sustain any movement promising a sure deliverance from the perils which have been connected with the war. It is safe to say that only those are now to be feared which come of an abuse of victory into permanent estrangement. The Union is fortified by more power than ever before, and it remains as an imperative duty to cement our nationality by a perfect reconciliation at the North. A wide-spread sympathy is aroused in behalf of those States of the South which, long after the termination of resistance to the rightful Federal authority, are still plundered under the guise of loyalty and tyrannized over in the name of freedom. Along with this feeling is present, too, the recognition that in complete amnesty alone can be found hope of any return to constitutional government as of old, or any development of a more enduring unity and broader national life in the future. Amnesty, however, to be efficacious must be real, not nominal; genuine, not evasive. It must carry along with it equal rights as well as equal protection to all; for the removal of disabilities as to some, with enforcement as to others, leaves room for suspicion that pardon is measured by political gain. Especially will such professed clemency be futile in the presence of the renewed attempt at prolonging a suspension of the *habeas corpus* and the persistent result to martial rather than civil law in upholding those agencies used to alienate the races whose concord is most essential, and in preparing another elaborate campaign on a basis of dead issues and arbitrary intervention. All will rightly credit such conduct as but a mockery of amnesty, and demand an administration which can give a better warrant of honesty in the great work of reconstruction and reform. In the array of sectional interests a Republic so widespread as ours is never entirely safe from serious conflicts. These become still more dangerous when complicated with questions of taxation, where unequal burdens are believed to be imposed on one part at the expense of another part. It was a bold as well as admirable policy in the interest of present as well as future tranquillity to withdraw the decision of industrial and revenue matters from the virtual arbitration of an electoral college, chosen with the single animating purpose of party ascendancy, and refer them for a more direct popular expression to each Congress district, instead of being muzzled by some evasive declaration. The country is thereby invited to its frankest utter-

ance, and sections which would revolt at being denied a voice out of deference to other sections would be content to acquiesce in a general judgment "honestly elicited." If local government be, as it undoubtedly is, the most vital principle of our institutions, much advance will be made toward establishing it by enabling the people to pass upon questions so nearly affecting their well-being dispassionately through their local representation. The precipitance which would force a controlling declaration on tax or tariff through a presidential candidacy is only a disguised form of centralization, invoking hazardous reaches of Executive influence. A conclusion will be much more impartially determined, and with less disturbance to trade and finance, by appealing to the most truthful and diversified local expression. Industrial issues can be thus likewise emancipated from the power of great monopolies, and each representative held to fidelity toward his immediate constituents. These are the most prominent features of that general concert of action which proposes to replace the present administration by one more in sympathy with the aspirations of the masses of our countrymen. Of course such concert cannot be obtained by thrusting every minor or past difference into the foreground, and it will be for the people therefore to determine whether these objects are of such magnitude in the present urgency as to justify them in deferring their adjustments until the country shall be first restored to a free suffrage, uninfluenced by official dictation; and ours becomes, in fact, a free Republic, released from apprehensions of a central domination.

Without referring in detail to the various other propositions embraced in the resolutions of the Convention, but seeing how they all contemplate a restoration of power to the people, peace to the nation, purity to the Government, that they condemn the attempt to establish an ascendancy of military over civil rule, and affirm with explicitness the maintenance of equal freedom to all citizens, irrespective of race, previous condition, or pending disabilities, I have only to pledge again my sincere co-operation. I have the honor to remain, very respectfully, yours,

B. Gratz Brown.

In person Governor Brown is of rather less than middle height, slightly built, and of nervous organization. His most noticeable characteristics, next to vigor and directness of thought, are boldness and decision in action, an iron will, indomitable perseverance and courage, and great capacity for long, continued labor. His speeches and public papers evince scholarship, and are always pointed and forcible. His manner in debate is very impressive and attractive, and he ranks among the foremost of western orators.

JOHN McAULEY PALMER.

JOHN McAULEY PALMER was born on Eagle Creek, Scott county, Kentucky, September 13th, 1817. His ancestors were of English origin, and among the early settlers of Virginia; his father, Louis D. Palmer, having emigrated from Northumberland county in that State to Kentucky, in 1793, where he met and married Ann Tutt, also a native of the "Old Dominion," in 1813. A soldier in the war of 1812, and naturally fond of adventure, he removed soon after the birth of the subject of this sketch, to Christian county, in that part of Kentucky then known as the Green River country, and purchasing a considerable quantity of the new and cheap lands of that section, commenced a pioneer farmer's life. The son's educational advantages under these circumstances were but meagre, and such as are common to pioneer settlements; yet, such as they were, they were eagerly improved. The father also being an ardent Jackson-man, and himself unusually fond of reading, managed to secure all the books, newspapers, and political documents of the day which he could get hold of, especially those of his own party, and these, we may well believe, were eagerly read and re-read by his children. He was also, even at that early day, an earnest opponent of human slavery, and both he and his family were recognized among their neighbors as "Anti-slavery Democrats." It was, indeed, the uncontrollable promptings of his convictions upon the subject

of slavery that determined him in 1831, to seek a home for his young family in the free States, which he did by settling near Alton, in Madison county, Illinois. The death of his wife, in 1833, virtually broke up the family, and in the spring of 1834, John Palmer and his brother Elihu (since a noted minister) entered "Alton College," so called, an institution which had then recently been opened on the "manual labor system," by the friends of education in Central Illinois. The boys had more energy than means, and in the fall of 1835, John graduated *for want of money* for the further prosecution of his studies. Then he went to work for a cooper; next he tried his hand at peddling; and in the fall of 1838, he taught two quarters in a district school, acceptably to his patrons, but all the time cramming himself with all the miscellaneous information he could glean from novels, history, poetry, sermons, and newspapers. In the summer of that year, he first met with the late Senator Douglas, then just entering upon his brilliant political career; admired him, voted for him, and from him, perhaps, imbibed his first political aspirations. The next winter he secured a copy of "Blackstone's Commentaries," and after some desultory law reading, he entered in the spring of 1839 the office of John L. Greathouse, an eminent lawyer at Carlinville, Illinois, whither he walked from St. Louis, his entire capital on arriving there being fourteen dollars in cash, a well-worn suit of clothes, and an extra shirt. His brother, who was now married and settled there, offered him a home under his own roof, and he commenced his regular law studies. Less than two months after, at the request of the leading Democratic county politicians, he became a candidate for the office of county clerk, but was defeated. In December, 1839, having managed to buy cloth enough for a suit of clothes, and finding a tailor who had faith enough in him, to make them up on credit, he borrowed five dollars from

his preceptor, and set out for Springfield and obtained from the Supreme Court a license to practise as attorney and counsellor-at-law, in which matter he was much indebted to the kindly interest of Mr. Douglas, as was ever remembered with gratitude during the long and bitter contests of later years. With his license, and a meagre stock of law books, given him by an elder and more fortunate professional brother, he commenced practice, with such poor results, however, at first, that he was only restrained from seeking a new home by the want of sufficient money with which to pay his debts. He participated actively as a Democrat in the Presidential canvass of 1840; in 1841, his profession yielded him a support; in 1842, he was married; in 1843, he was elected County Probate Judge; and during the years 1844, '45 and '46, his practice became quite extensive. In 1847, he was chosen to the State Constitutional Convention, and in 1848, was re-elected to the office of Probate Judge, from which he had been ousted at the election of the previous year by a political combination. In 1849, he was elected County Judge, which office he held until his election, in 1851, to the State Senate, of which he was member during the sessions of 1852, '53 and '54. In this latter year he opposed the Nebraska bill, and being re-elected to the Senate for 1855, warmly supported the free-school system, the Homestead Law, and many other important measures. In 1856, he was President of the Illinois Republican State Convention, at Bloomington; and was also a delegate to the National Republican Convention at Philadelphia, where he advocated Judge McLean's nomination, although personally favoring Frémont, whom he actively supported in the ensuing canvass; first, however, resigning his seat in the State Senate, on the ground that the change in his political connections since his election to that body, rendered such a course necessary both as a matter of self-respect, and of proper regard for the true

principles of a representative government. In 1857 and '58, State politics occupied his attention, and in '59 he was defeated in an election for Congress. In 1860, he was elector at large on the Republican ticket, and cast his vote for Lincoln; and in February, 1861, was a delegate to the Peace Congress at Washington, where he advocated the call of a national convention for the settlement of the impending difficulties, and when that proposition failed, he favored the means of compromise finally recommended by that conference.

But when the war-cloud finally burst, the martial spirit inherited from his father, the old soldier of 1812, united with his own inherent convictions on the great questions at issue, irrepressibly urged him to action. On the second call for troops, in 1861, he came forward as a common citizen and soldier; but his fellow-citizens knew his worth, and he was unanimously chosen Colonel of the 14th Illinois volunteers, first seeing active service under his old friend, Gen. Frémont, in the expedition to Springfield, Missouri, in which State he served during the remainder of the year, a portion of the time in command of a brigade under Gens. Hunter and Pope. On the 20th of December he was commissioned brigadier-general, and during February and March, 1862, was with Pope in the expedition against New Madrid and Island No. 10, on the Mississippi; at the former place, in command of a division, with which he firmly held Riddle's Point against a strong rebel force, who constantly strove, both by land and water, to force their way to Tiptonville, which was the only approach to Island No. 10. After the capture of Island No. 10, Pope's army proceeded down the river to Fort Pillow, which it commenced to bombard, but were soon ordered to join Gen. Halleck, then before Corinth. *En route* to that place, at Hamburgh, on the Tennessee, Pope reorganized his force, and Gen. Palmer was placed in command of the

first brigade, first division of the Army of the Mississippi, composed of four Illinois regiments and a battery, which he handled with admirable coolness and skill at the battle of Farmington, May 8th, in which, under extremely critical circumstances, he engaged and finally, after a closely-contested fight of several hours' duration, escaped from three rebel divisions. On the 20th of the same month, he was suddenly taken ill from exposure, and was ordered home by Gen. Pope, remaining on the sick list until about August 1st, when he engaged in the efforts then making to raise troops, and by authority of the Governor organized the 122d Illinois regiment at Carlinville. On the 1st September, he again took the field at Tuscumbia, Alabama, where he was assigned by Gen. Rosecrans to the command of the first division of the Army of the Mississippi, and ordered to join Gen. Buell. This he accomplished by a forced march made in good order, though sorely harassed at every step by rebels, and surrounded by a malignant and treacherous populace, and reached Buell at Nashville in safety. During the subsequent so-called blockade of Nashville by the rebel forces, Gen. Palmer's and Negley's forces were the occupants and defenders of that city, the key-point of middle Tennessee, and right loyally they held it too. At the fierce fight of Stone's river, Gen. Palmer held a conspicuous part, his division occupying important and perilous positions, and it was in distinct recognition of his gallantry and skill on this occasion that the general was nominated and confirmed, November 29th, 1862, as Major-General of Volunteers. He was at Chickamauga, in 1863, and in Sherman's Atlantic campaign, he commanded the fourteenth corps, and he fought with distinction at Kenesaw, and Peach Tree Creek. He also took part in the "march to the sea."

Early in the year 1865, he was, at his own request, relieved from the command of his corps, and assigned to that of the

Federal forces in Kentucky, which State was in a restless and critical condition; some 20,000 Kentuckians being then in the rebel army; a large proportion of the remaining population sympathizing openly with the Confederate cause; the Unionists chafing under the loss of their slaves, and the slaves themselves, neither free nor enslaved, being as disturbed as the whites. Palmer was eminently the man for the occasion. Brave, collected, shrewd and prompt; deliberate in judgment, but strong in action; affable and patient with all, but never influenced by designing men; he possessed also statesmanlike qualities of a high order, well adapted to grapple with and settle the various important questions which were constantly arising in this new field—questions, indeed, which eventually tended to the shaping of the national policy. His first and celebrated military order of April 29th, 1865, struck the key-note of loyal administration by its sharp enunciation of the fact, that the people of that department were to be protected "without regard to color or birthplace," and "whether free or not," from cruelty and oppression "in all cases;" that, when the state of the country and the organization and rules of the civil courts should permit them to enforce justice, offenders against the local laws would be handed over to them for trial; but that, at the same time, no person or court would be allowed to deprive of liberty, or harass or persecute any one who had taken the amnesty oath, who had deserted the rebel cause, or was engaged in serving, aiding or abetting the United States Government. This raised a tremendous howl of malignancy against what was termed "military coercion of the courts;" but it was followed, May 10th, by another order asserting the freedom of the wives and children of all colored men enlisted in the Federal army, and loyal Kentuckians were encouraged to help enlistments. Slavery was melting visibly away; the State Legislature refused to approve the Constitu-

tional Amendment abolishing it, and so the contest went on. At a Union Convention held in Frankfort, the general delivered an address pledging the whole power of Government for the protection of Union men and free speech, yet boldly claiming that "the time has passed in this country, when free speech is to be understood as the liberty of mouthing treason." The military supervision which he instituted of the annual election evoked numerous complaints of military interference with the rights of franchise, and indictments of army officers were common. Gen. Palmer, however, held his ground unflinchingly, and when the colored people sought employment in other parts of Kentucky or neighboring States, he assisted them by setting aside, by a military order, the statutes forbidding their transportation on lines of transit, and suspended the execution of other barbarous statutes, informing the municipal authorities that they neither could nor should molest persons made free by authority of the Federal Government. The President was entreated to remove him from command of the district, but declined; then, a suit was commenced against him in the name of the State, for aiding slaves to escape, but was dismissed by Judge Johnston, on the ground that the requisite number of States had adopted the Constitutional Amendment before the date of the indictment, and that, therefore, all criminal and penal acts of the legislature of Kentucky were of no avail. Thus, a Kentucky court gave the first practical judicial recognition of the Fourteenth Constitutional Amendment. A general order followed, proclaiming the abolition of slavery, and advising colored people to claim their rights on public routes of travel, by legal means. On the 12th October martial law in Kentucky was abrogated by President Johnson's proclamation, and on the fifteenth, Gen. Palmer telegraphed to the War Department that "department passes" were dishonored at the ferries on the Ohio, colored people being

refused passage across, saying that he had ordered the Post Commandant at Louisville, to compel the honoring of said passes, a step rendered necessary by "the alarm amongst the negroes upon the report of the withdrawal of martial law." The Secretary of War, however, took the view that, under the circumstances, the Government could not properly interfere. Renewed efforts for his removal, instigated by treasonable influences, were strongly pressed, but due examination of the application and circumstances attending, convinced the administration that there was no cause for removal, and again treason and half confirmed loyalty was baffled in its revenge. When at last even Kentucky disloyalists had come to the conclusion that the power of the United States Government, and the sentiment of the whole nation were too strong for them, and yielded, though still with a bad grace, to the legislation based on the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution, Gen. Palmer resigned his commission and returned to Illinois. He was active in the Presidential canvass of 1868, and did much to aid in carrying the State for the Republican ticket. In the autumn of 1868, he was elected as Governor Oglesby's successor as Governor of Illinois, and in the autumn of 1870 was re-elected, his second term of service closing January, 1873. His administration has been characterized by great ability, and what, perhaps, was hardly to be expected from one who had been so long a national soldier, a careful and almost jealous guardianship of *State* rights. After the great fire in Chicago, October 8th, 1871, there was some conflict of authority unintentional, doubtless, on the part of Lieut.-Gen. Sheridan, yet involving some important questions of State and national jurisdiction, and resulting in the death of a prominent citizen of Chicago, at the hands of one of the volunteer sentinels commissioned by the lieut.-general, after the State authorities had taken command of the city. Gen. Palmer

protested with great spirit against this invasion of the rights of the State, and though at first the sympathies of Chicago were with Gen. Sheridan, and Governor Palmer's course was denounced, it was not long before the people generally saw that he was right. Governor Palmer has recently declined a renomination, and taking strong ground in favor of the Cincinnati nominations, is engaged in canvassing the State for them, and for the election of the Liberal Republican and Democratic candidate for governor, Mr. Koerner.

A straightforward, honest, earnest man, a gallant soldier, an excellent administrative officer, and of such unflinching integrity, that it would be easier to turn the sun from his course, than him from what he believed to be right, Governor Palmer deserves well of his countrymen.

JOHN THOMPSON HOFFMAN,

GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK.

HIGH social position, and the influence of a line of ancestry who have for generations been of repute in the State, are no hindrance to a young man in attaining place and power, if they are not used offensively; but in our really democratic government and national life, they weigh very little unless there is combined with them sterling ability and merit. Indeed, as between two boys of very nearly equal talent and intellectual power, but one of old and honored family, and the other a son of the soil, whose early surroundings were of the humblest and poorest, the poor boy would have, on the whole, a slight advantage in the political prizes of the State and nation.

It is not then because Governor Hoffman can claim in his ancestry the honored names of Livingston, Kissam, Thompson, and Hoffman, that he has attained his conspicuous position, but because there was in him that real capacity for the public service without which his ancestry would have been of no avail.

JOHN THOMPSON HOFFMAN was born in the village of Sing Sing, New York, January 10th, 1828. As we have said, he comes of a good stock. His father, an eminent physician, was descended from the Livingstons, the Kissams, and the Hoffmans of our earlier history. The son, after early training under Rev. Dr. Prime, a well known scholar and journalist, entered the

junior class of Union College in 1843, at the age of fifteen, and though compelled by impaired health to suspend his studies for a year, graduated with high honors in 1846. He had already a good reputation as a public speaker, and his graduating oration on "Sectional Prejudices," both in its matter and delivery was so exceptionally excellent as to attract attention. After leaving college he commenced the study of law in the office of General Aaron Ward and Judge Albert Lockwood at Sing Sing.

Mr. Hoffman's political career began before he had attained his majority. In the year 1848, at the age of twenty, he was made a member of the State Central Committee by the Convention of Hunker or Hard Shell Democracy. That year will long be remembered in the political history of the State. Martin Van Buren's candidacy for the office of President divided the Democracy of New York, causing strong and bitter feeling between his supporters and those of the regular nominee, Lewis Cass, and resulting in the overwhelming triumph of the Whig party. Taylor carried the State by a plurality of about 100,000, and Hamilton Fish was elected Governor. This, in face of the fact that the aggregate Democratic vote exceeded that of the Whigs. Pending the canvass, the State Committee, of which Mr. Hoffman was a member, put forth "An Address to the People," in which the claims of their principles and of their candidates were advocated with marked ability. Although not then a voter, Mr. Hoffman took the stump for Cass and did effective service as a speaker.

On the 10th of January, 1849—his twenty-first birthday—Mr. Hoffman was admitted to the bar.

In October of that year he removed to New York, where, soon after, he formed a law partnership with the late Samuel M. Woodruff and Judge William H. Leonard, the firm name being Woodruff, Leonard & Hoffman.

For ten years Mr. Hoffman devoted himself to the practice of his profession, and so marked was his success, that in 1859 he was urged by some of the most prominent citizens of New York for the position of United States District Attorney. But President Buchanan objected to him on account of his youth, and Judge Roosevelt was appointed to the place.

In the year 1860, Mr. Hoffman was nominated for Recorder of the city of New York, and after a spirited canvass was elected to that position. In this instance the office sought the man. Mr. Hoffman had declined to have his name presented as a candidate, but he was, nevertheless, nominated by the Tammany Convention, on the second formal ballot. At the election which followed he was the only candidate on the Tammany ticket who, without the support of other organizations, was chosen by the people. He entered upon his duties as Recorder on the 1st of January, 1861. None so young as he had ever before filled the place, but none made a deeper and more favorable impression on the public mind.

His strict ideas of justice, tempered by the influence of a merciful heart; his ample legal acquirements, laid on the foundation of rare good sense; his unhalting firmness in the discharge of duty, and his unquestioned integrity, combined to render him a good and upright judge. So firm a hold did he gain on the popular heart during his first term as Recorder, in the course of which he tried and sentenced many of those engaged in the famous riots of July, 1863, that the Republican Judiciary Convention named him, on the 12th of October, 1863, for reëlection. Tammany and Mozart also united on him; the newspaper press, regardless of party affiliations, indorsed him, and the people rallied enthusiastically to his support and forgot party prejudice in their admiration for an honest man. Under such flattering circumstances he was again chosen Recorder by an almost unanimous vote of the electors.

On the 21st of November, 1865, John T. Hoffman was nominated for the office of Mayor of the city of New York by the Tammany Hall Democratic Convention. An effort to unite the then hostile factions of Tammany and Mozart had proved unsuccessful. Fernando Wood was nominated by the last named organization, but declined in favor of John Hecker, the candidate of the Citizens Association, who was warmly advocated by the New York *Tribune*. C. Godfrey Gunther, the then incumbent, had previously announced himself as a candidate for reëlection, and his claims were indorsed by what was known as the McKeon Democracy. The Republicans saw in the division of the Democratic vote a chance for their own success. They nominated Marshall O. Roberts, and under his leadership they inaugurated a most vigorous campaign. At the election which followed 81,702 votes were cast, of which Judge Hoffman received 32,820; Mr. Roberts, 31,657; Mr. Hecker, 10,390, and Mayor Gunther, 6,758.

On the 1st of January, 1866, Mr. Hoffman entered upon his duties as Mayor. His administration of this office, joined with his previous reputation as Recorder, rendered his name familiar throughout the State, and during the summer he was frequently mentioned as the probable candidate of the Democracy for Governor.

The Convention which assembled at Albany on the 11th of September was found to be composed of elements which had never before mingled in State politics. Old line Democrats joined hands with Conservative republicans in an effort to unite all the varied forces which opposed the Radical course of Congress. One-third of the delegates had acted up to that time with the Republican party. These were they who favored Andrew Johnson's policy and indorsed the Philadelphia Convention. They scarcely had faith, however, in the President's ability to

carry his ideas to a successful issue. They were inclined to sing with Tennyson—

> "'Tis true we have a faithful ally,
> But only the Devil knows what he means."

The Democrats had just lost their great organizing leader, Dean Richmond, and these accessions to their ranks, at such a juncture, did not promise to promote harmony. But the Convention at Albany was a very large one, and it soon became apparent that if a proper nomination were made for Governor, a vigorous campaign could be prosecuted with a reasonable hope of success. Under these circumstances an unusual number of distinguished names were canvassed by the delegates. Sanford E. Church, Henry C. Murphy, William F. Allen, John T. Hoffman, Henry W. Slocum, John A. Dix, William Kelly, and others were mentioned as available candidates. After a fair interchange of opinion it was found that a majority of the Convention favored the choice of Mayor Hoffman, and on the second day he was nominated by acclamation, amidst the wildest enthusiasm. The Convention then adjourned until afternoon, and on reassembling it was addressed by the candidate himself, who had been telegraphed for. His manly speech on that occasion made a lasting impression on the minds of the delegates, many of whom saw him then for the first time.

After his nomination, Mayor Hoffman canvassed the State, speaking at Elmira, Syracuse, Rochester, Buffalo, Binghamton, Brooklyn, New York and other places. His earnest and convincing arguments were well received by the masses of the people everywhere. But frequent defeat had engendered amongst the Democrats a want of confidence in their ability to succeed, and the ill-timed tour of Johnson and Grant united the columns of the opposition, while it injured rather than benefited the party whose interests the President sought to subserve. But,

notwithstanding these disheartening circumstances, the election returns showed a decided gain in the Democratic vote over the preceding year. After the election the Democrats awoke to the knowledge of the fact that, had they made more effort, they might have overcome the small majority by which Governor Fenton was reëlected. The lesson came late, but it was not altogether lost, as the next year's contest showed.

In the fall of 1867 Mayor Hoffman was chosen temporary chairman of the Democratic State Convention, and delivered a speech on that occasion in which he enumerated with admirable succinctness the governing principles of the party, and defined its attitude in relation to current questions with remarkable clearness.

Mr. Hoffman's first term as Mayor was then drawing to a close. The popularity which he had gained in the discharge of his duties made his renomination a foregone conclusion. The Tammany Convention met on the Saturday evening succeeding the State election. A great concourse of people gathered around the hall, and when it was announced that Hoffman had been nominated without a dissenting voice, the air rang with the cheers of the satisfied populace. In this canvass Mayor Hoffman had two competitors, Fernando Wood, Mozart Democrat, and Wm. A. Darling, Republican. The result of the election was significant. Hoffman carried every ward in the city. His vote was the largest ever given to any candidate in New York. His majority over both his competitors was nearly equal to the total vote of either. With this unmistakable indorsement he entered upon his second term as Mayor, on the 1st of January, 1868.

His third annual message as Mayor contained a reiteration of his views on the question of city government; which views were simply the old theory of Jefferson, that in local affairs the

local authorities should rule. Simple and sensible as this doctrine appears, its enunciation gained the Mayor some vigorous abuse from his political opponents.

But in despite of this, his popularity had grown so great that when the National Democratic Convention met at New York, in July, Mayor Hoffman's name was suggested by many of the Western delegates in connection with the Vice-Presidency. But he neither sought nor desired this honor, and the nomination of Governor Seymour for President placed it out of the power of the Convention to urge it upon him.

On the 13th of August, 1868, the State Committee, together with many prominent Democrats, met in Utica, for consultation. This meeting developed the fact that Mayor Hoffman would again be the Democratic candidate for Governor. The canvass of 1866 had brought him in contact with the people who, everywhere, felt that he had earned this honor, by the earnest and effective service he performed in that disastrous year.

When the Convention met, in September, the name of Senator Murphy, who was Mayor Hoffman's chief competitor, was withdrawn, and John T. Hoffman was, for a second time, nominated by acclamation, for Governor of the State of New York.

The Republicans had previously placed in nomination John A. Griswold, of Rensselaer. He was heralded as the builder of the first "Monitor," and this service, together with his record in Congress, were dwelt upon until considerable enthusiasm was aroused among the people in his behalf.

Both the candidates were young men, and the personal qualifications of each were admitted by all; but the canvass was one of peculiar bitterness. Victory seemed within the grasp of either party, and the pendency of the Presidential campaign roused partisans to extraordinary efforts, and lent additional interest to the gubernatorial contest. Mayor Hoffman canvassed

the State in person, and addressed the electors at many of the principal towns. His presence inspired confidence among his supporters, and his speeches, although they evoked sharp criticism from Republican sources, cemented the elements of his strength.

At the election, which occurred on the 2d of November, 1868, he was chosen Governor by a majority of 27,946. But opposition to Governor Hoffman did not cease with the closing of the polls. The cry of "fraud" was set up and persisted in by those whose candidates had met defeat. This cry is no new catchword for politicians of either party; but the vigor with which it was pressed in this particular instance made it somewhat effective in producing a feeling of popular prejudice against Governor Hoffman.

How quickly this feeling was dissipated, after the Governor had taken his seat, is a matter of common knowledge. His bitterest enemies became his eulogists; Republican newspapers commended his course, and an opposition Legislature indorsed, almost without a dissenting voice, every veto message which he submitted to their consideration.

These vetoes were numerous, and were aimed chiefly at the evil system of Special Legislation, which cumbers our statute books with innumerable unnecessary laws that seldom prove beneficial except to individuals whose personal schemes are accomplished at the cost of the tax payers.

In three sessions of the Legislature, he vetoed, in all, four hundred and two bills. In every instance when the Legislature was in Session, and had an opportunity, under the Constitution, of passing the bill, notwithstanding his veto, they acquiesced in his reasons, and allowed the bill to die. Part of this time his political opponents held control of both houses. The popular judgment has with rare unanimity approved of all his nume-

rous vetoes, his political opponents never venturing to find fault with them. His is the most extensive and most successful exercise of the veto power in the history of the United States.

In 1870, he was again elected Governor by a majority of 33,096, over Stewart L. Woodford. In July, 1871, occurred the so-called Orange riots. A procession of Orangemen had been arranged in the city of New York, for the 12th of July, but in consequence of threats of its being seriously disturbed by a combination of disorderly men, the city authorities had forbidden the procession. Their order to this effect was made public on the morning of the eleventh. Governor Hoffman left the capital of the State, and came to the city in person, induced the city authorities to revoke their order, issued a proclamation promising the Orangemen protection, took personal command of the militia, being at his headquarters fifteen hours that day, and gave the procession such efficient protection that it marched over its proposed route uninjured, although in the riot created by its assailants, four soldiers of the escorting force were killed. Of the mob, about thirty were killed and many wounded.

Governor Hoffman has introduced a valuable reform in the administration of the pardoning power. During every year of his administration he has submitted to the Legislature (and thus to the public) a report of the pardons granted, and of the reasons which, in each case, governed his action. The law requires no such reports; but it is easy to see that his wholesome example will have to be followed by his successors.

During the excitement of 1871 and 1872, over the frauds of Tweed, Connolly, Sweeny, and others, in New York city, zealous efforts were made by Governor Hoffman's enemies to implicate him in these frauds; but when subjected to searching investigation, these efforts failed to sustain a single charge made against him. That he had been politically affiliated with these

men was unquestionable; that some of them, before he knew of their wrong-doing, had been his personal friends, was also true; but as those who knew the Governor best were satisfied beforehand, not an iota of evidence could be produced to show that his hands had ever been soiled with bribes, or that he had ever participated in the slightest degree in these gigantic frauds.

In personal appearance Governor Hoffman is above the medium height, and has a strong, well-knit frame. His weight is 180 pounds. His hair is dark and abundant; his forehead is broad and particularly developed in what phrenologists call perceptive faculties; his eyes are of a deep brown color; his nose is large; his chin prominent, and his mouth shapely and indicative of firmness. He wears a full moustache but no beard.

As a speaker he is plain, clear and straightforward in manner as well as in matter. His voice is full, round and sonorous, but he practises few of the tricks of the orator, and seldom embellishes his speeches with rhetorical flourishes.

As a writer he is argumentative rather than imaginative, and his style is too analytical to be florid. He possesses, however, a certain happy power of poetical description, which he displayed to good advantage in the Agricultural Address delivered by him before the Ulster County Fair, September, 1869.

In his intercourse with his fellow man, Governor Hoffman is frank and genial; he has nothing of the demagogue's overbearing pomposity, and he is free from the sycophant's affectation of cordiality. He makes no promises which he does not keep; he holds out no false hopes to applicants for his favor; he is loyal to truth, and he cherishes his personal integrity as something more valuable than any political power.

EDWIN D. MORGAN,

LATE UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM NEW YORK.

THE ability which is developed in an active business life, in great commercial transactions, and the rapid changes and fluctuations of trade and finance, have proved in practice as valuable in the management of the public affairs of the State and nation, as that which comes from the exclusive study of law. The accomplished merchant, banker, or financier, is, indeed, more likely to take a plain, common-sense view of the questions of state, and to be unembarrassed by the quibbles, chicanery and superfine distinctions and definitions of the lawyer, than the man who has been trained in the school of precedents, authorities, and legal hair-splitting. To this class of business-men, Ex-Gov. Morgan belongs, and the signal services he has rendered to the State and nation, are due, in perhaps equal measures, to the eminently practical and sensible constitution of his mind, and to the thoroughness and carefulness of his business training.

EDWIN DENNISON MORGAN was born in Washington, Berkshire county, Massachussetts, February 8th, 1811. In early childhood, he developed a fondness for mathematics, and an aptitude for trade, which indicated very plainly his future vocation. At the tender age of eleven years, he became clerk to a grocer in Hartford, Connecticut, and was so faithful and attentive to his employer's interests, and so courteous as a sales-

man, that, in 1831, when he was but twenty years of age, he was offered a partnership in the store, which he accepted. These nine or ten years of boyhood and youth had not been confined merely to the drudgery of the grocery; the hours of leisure had been diligently employed in the culture of his mind, and the next year he was chosen a member of the city council of Hartford, at a time when it was composed of intelligent and able men.

The little city of Hartford did not long furnish a sufficiently wide sphere of action for the aspiring young grocer; so, in 1836, he removed to New York city, and engaged in mercantile pursuits with his brother, and the firm grew and prospered, till in a few years it attained a high rank among the safest and most extensive commercial houses of the metropolis, its transactions reaching to all parts of the United States and Europe. In 1849, Mr. Morgan was chosen an alderman of New York, and the same year elected to the State Senate, and served there for two terms (four years). In 1855, he was appointed commissioner of emigration, and held the office until 1858. His early political affiliations were with the Whigs, though he was strongly opposed to slavery. When the Republican party was formed, he gave it his adhesion, as representing his views, and at the National Republican Convention, in Pittsburgh, in 1856, was one of its vice-presidents, and from that time till 1864, chairman of the National Republican Committee.

In 1858, Mr. Morgan was nominated by the Republicans as their candidate for Governor of the State of New York, and elected by a handsome majority. His administration was one of the ablest which the State had had for years, and commanded such general approval, that he was nominated for a second term without opposition in his party, in 1860, and elected by a very heavy majority. This second term was one of immense labor, care, and responsibility to the governor. He

promptly responded to the President's call of April 15th, 1861, and regiment after regiment went forward to Washington, and other points on the border, and among them, the gallant New York seventh, at whose coming loyal citizens of Washington, for the first time, felt safe; the twelfth and seventy-first; the fighting sixty-ninth (Irish); and the stately seventy-ninth (Scotch); the Brooklyn fourteenth, composed, as some writers said, of boys who looked as if they ought to be in school, but who fought with all the steadiness of veterans; the twenty-sixth, a Utica regiment of great gallantry; and others of perhaps equal merit, all of whom participated in the bloody field of Bull Run. The militia could only be required to serve out of the State for three months at a time, and Governor Morgan had no sooner dispatched these to the seat of war, than he commenced organizing, as rapidly as possible, volunteer regiments to serve for three years, or the war.

President Lincoln had commissioned him, in the spring of 1861, major general of volunteers, in order to facilitate his labors in raising and organizing regiments. He held this rank till the close of his term of office as governor, (January, 1863,) but declined all compensation. No officer under his command was, however, more constantly and laboriously engaged in his duties, than the governor. Yet with his systematic business habits, the ability acquired by long practice to manage and control great enterprises, he was never flurried, but maintained constantly the most perfect order, and quietly performed his duties, as they required his attention.

In the twenty months of his administration, during the war, he raised, organized, and sent forward from his State, two hundred and twenty-three thousand troops. In the gubernatorial election of 1862, Governor Morgan was not a candidate, having withdrawn from the canvass to give place to the gallant

soldier, General James S. Wadsworth, who, however, was not elected, the Democracy prevailing by the popular cry of "a more active prosecution of the war," in electing a man who was wholly opposed to the war. The Legislature was, however, Republican, and at its session, Governor Morgan was elected United States Senator, for the term ending March 4th, 1869.

His course in the Senate was uniformly dignified and honorable to the State which he represented. He seldom spoke; never unless on important questions, and was then always listened to with attention. During his entire Senatorial career, he held an important position on the Committees on Commerce, Manufacturing, the Pacific Railroad, Military Affairs, Finance, and Mines and Mining, and on all these great national interests he rendered material and permanent service to the country. On the retirement of Secretary Fessenden from the office of Secretary of the Treasury, President Lincoln offered Senator Morgan the position, but he declined it, much to the regret of the President.

Since the expiration of his Senatorial term, Ex-Gov. Morgan has taken no active part in political affairs, but has been occupied with his extensive commercial and financial enterprises. He still maintains an interest, however, in the measures and progress of the Republican party.

JOSEPH RUSSELL HAWLEY,

LATE GOVERNOR OF CONNECTICUT.

JOSEPH RUSSELL HAWLEY, journalist, soldier and politician, was born October 31st, 1826, in Richmond county, North Carolina, where his father, a Congregational minister, and a native of New York, was then engaged in home missionary work. Some years after he removed to central New York, where he became a near neighbor of Gerrit Smith, at Peterboro', and the boy, gaining his education at good Northern schools, entered Hamilton College, at Clinton, New York, whence he graduated in 1847; studied law, and responding to the invitation of an uncle, David Hawley, a well-known city missionary, at Hartford, Connecticut, went to that city about 1850, and commenced the practice of his chosen profession. At first he had a "hard row to hoe;" but threw himself "body and soul" into the Free Soil movement, and was one of a little band of some sixty (among whom were Dr. John Braddock, Rev. Dr. Patton, now editor of *The Advance*, Chicago, Illinois, and others) "Free Soilers," who, at every election, for years, regularly went to the polls with open ballots. He was conspicuously active in State conventions, and deservedly acquired the reputation of being an active party man, and a forcible and eloquent speaker on all themes of public importance. Meanwhile his law business had improved, but his taste for

political debate preponderated, and in company with Mr. Faxon, he bought out the *Republican* newspaper, and commenced in its stead the *Hartford Evening Press*, of which he assumed the editorship, and gave up the practice of law. The *Press*, which was thoroughly Republican in its principles, was a decided success, and Mr. Hawley wielded the editorial pen with pleasure and profit until the outbreak of the Civil Rebellion in 1861, that event which so suddenly turned the current of so many men's labors and lives. Upon the receipt of Governor Buckingham's proclamation to the people of Connecticut, Hawley and two others met in the office of his paper, and drew up and signed an informal enlistment paper, as volunteers in the first regiment; and at a public meeting held the same evening, presided over by the Lieutenant-Governor, the list was filled, and the company was formed. Hawley was made first lieutenant in Rifle Company A, First Regiment Connecticut Volunteers, which was mustered into service April 22d, 1861, for three months. By the promotion of the colonel of the regiment soon after, Hawley became captain of his company, and displayed much activity in the organization and equipment of his men, for whom he ordered arms on his own personal credit, from the Sharpe Rifle Factory. He took a fair share of fighting in the battle of Bull Run, July 18th, and his was one of the few companies which did not run. The company being disbanded at the end of their short term of service, July 31st, we next find him as Lieut.-Colonel of the Sixth Connecticut Volunteers, organized August, 1861, for three years' service; which was assigned, upon its arrival in Washington, to the Department of the South. It was present at, and honorably mentioned in the official reports of the day, in the attack on Fort Wallace, November 7th, under Colonel (afterwards General) Terry. During 1861, '62, the sixth was at Hilton Head; took part in the reduction of Fort Pulaski, April and

March; in the Battle of James Island, June 14th; Pocataligo, October 22d; and in the expedition to Port Royal. Meanwhile, by the appointment of Col. Terry as brigadier, Lieut.-Colonel Hawley had become a colonel. He had command of the sixth during the operations at Hilton Head, Morris Island, and Fort Wagner, in Gilman's campaign against Charleston, in the spring and summer of 1863. He was then placed in command at Fernandina, Florida, obtaining for his men, while there, the breech-loading Spencer Rifle, to the merits of which the War Department were blind until near the close of the war; he commanded a brigade detailed to destroy railroads near the Suwanee river, and also at the battle of Olustee, Florida, February 19th, 1864. His Florida service terminated May 4th, by the transfer of himself and command to the army of the James, where he had charge of a brigade in Terry's division, in Butler's attack on Bermuda Hundred. At Chester Station, Deep Bottom, Deep Run, Chapin's Farm near Richmond, New Market Road, Darbyton Road, Charles City Road, and other places where battles and skirmishes occurred during the summer and fall campaign of 1864, Hawley's command was more or less actively engaged. He was commissioned September 17th, 1864, as Brigadier-General of Volunteers; when, in November of that year, and in consequence of threats of violence at the polls, made by the peace men of the North, and alarming frauds discovered, having for their object the stuffing of ballot-boxes in New York City with fraudulent votes, Gen. B. F. Butler was transferred to the command of the Department of the East, he was accompanied by a division of soldiers under Gen. Hawley, consisting of 3000 Connecticut troops. Hawley's headquarters were on the small steamer, Moses Taylor, anchored off the foot of Twenty-third street, New York, and the exposure, fatigue and responsibility of that service, stowed away in close quarters, on board the boats, etc.,

with half rations, were quite as severe to the troops engaged in it, as most of their experience "at the front." After the election, which, thanks to their presence, passed off peaceably, they returned to the army in the field, and Hawley again saw fighting at Fort Fisher, North Carolina, in January, 1865. Subsequently, when Gen. Terry was placed in command at Richmond, Virginia, Gen. Hawley was called from his position at Wilmington, North Carolina, as his chief-of-staff, and there the two gallant soldiers, friends in arms, and wearing the honors so worthily won in the fore-front of battle, strove, during the months of 1865, to bring peace out of hostility, evolve order from chaos, and construct a broad base upon which might be erected a genuine democracy, taking the place of that so-called aristocracy which had borne such bitter fruits, not only in the Old Dominion, but throughout the South. They were, indeed, "*par nobile fratrum*," well fitted for harmonious action, displaying admirable qualities of executive skill, fidelity, military vigor, promptness and patriotism. State and city were governed with "an iron hand in a velvet glove." They occupied as headquarters the residence of the whilom Confederate President, Jefferson Davis; and there, on the 1st of August, 1865, Gen. Hawley was the recipient of a general officer's regulation sword, gold mounted, of rare richness of design, and valued at $1150, which was presented to him from the citizens of Hartford, Connecticut, in the presence of a large assemblage of loyalty and beauty, of both civil and military circles. On the 28th of September, Gen. Hawley received a commission as Major-General of Volunteers. The military record of Gen. Hawley was adorned by acts of courage and composure in the most trying circumstances, and by an unfaltering devotion to the cause of justice, humanity and freedom. Capable and cool under fire, urbane in his dealings with all, yet firm as a rock

against all enemies to the republic, whether open or covert, and devoting all his energies to the work of suppressing disloyalty, he speedily gained the esteem and confidence of his comrades in the field, and his friends at home. It was not strange, therefore, that he should have been deemed worthy to guide the home councils of the State, which he had so well represented abroad. He was elected Governor of the State of Connecticut, from 1866, '67. His administration was successful and honorable both to himself and the State; but declining a renomination, he returned to his editorial duties, being still as before the war connected with the *Evening Press*.

In 1867, the *Hartford Press* and *Connecticut Courant* were consolidated under the latter title, Gen. Hawley being chief proprietor and editor. In 1868, he had the honor of presiding over the National Republican Convention which nominated Grant and Colfax; and during the present year was chosen President of the National Centennial Celebration of the Declaration of Independence, which is to be held at Philadelphia, July 4th, 1876. He was the candidate of the Republican party for United States Senator for the term commencing March 4th, 1873, but was defeated by the coalition of the Democrats and bolting Republicans, who re-elected the present Senator, O. S. Terry.

Gen. Hawley is in the prime of manhood, a man of fine and commanding presence, of great energy and eloquence, and wide and generous culture. He is by nature and disposition a reformer, and will strike his heaviest blows when he has some giant wrong to battle, some monster evil to throttle and destroy. If he lives he will yet be heard from in our country's history, and that on the right side. His late defeat will only in God's good time prove the stepping stone to some higher and better success. There is for him a future of honor and fame, if he wills it.

WENDELL PHILLIPS
GERRIT SMITH
GEO. B. VICKERS

HORACE GREELEY.

HORACE GREELEY was born at Amherst, New Hampshire, on the 3d of February, 1811, being the third of seven children, two of whom had died before his birth. His father, Zaccheus (a name borne, also, by his grandfather and great-grandfather), was a native of Londonderry (now Hudson), New Hampshire, and was of the Massachusetts clan, "mainly farmers, but part blacksmiths," who traced their ancestry to one of three brothers who emigrated to this country, about 1650, from Nottinghamshire, England. All the Greeleys are said to have possessed marked and peculiar characters—distinguished for *tenacity* of vitality, opinions, preferences, memory, and purpose. Few of them have ever been rich, but all, as far as known, have been of respectable social condition, industrious, honest, and loyal. Mary Woodburn, the wife of Zaccheus, and the mother of Horace Greeley, was also of Londonderry, New Hampshire, of that fine old *Scotch-Irish* stock which settled that town—Irish in their vivacity, generosity, and daring; Scotch in their frugality, industry, and resolution—a race in whom Nature seems, for once, to have kindly blended the qualities which render men interesting with those which render them prosperous. The Greeley and Woodburn farm adjoined. and so it

came about that Zaccheus Greeley found favor in the eyes of Mary Woodburn, and was married to her in the year 1807, he being then twenty-five years of age and she nineteen. He inherited nothing from his father, and she had no property except the usual household portion from hers—so the young couple settled down at old Mr. Greeley's—supporting, for a while, the old folks and their still numerous minor children; but this did not last long. Young married people crave independence, and, ere long, Zaccheus Greeley managed to purchase, partly with his earnings and partly "on trust," a small and not over fertile farm at Amherst, where, as we have seen, Horace first saw the light. In New England, farmer's sons learn to make themselves useful almost as soon as they can walk. Feeding the chickens, driving the cows, carrying wood and water, and all the light offices which are denominated "*chores*," fall to their lot; and Horace (as the eldest son of a poor and hard working farmer struggling hard with the sterile soil to pay off the debt he had incurred in its purchase, and to support his increasing family) was by no means exempt from his share of daily toil and responsibilities. Grubbing in the corn hills, "riding the horse to plow," burning charcoal in the neighboring woods, and "picking stones," were among the occupations which the boy carried on—and that right *faithfully*, too, although his heart rejoiced not in them. The last named labor he seems to have disrelished exceedingly. "Picking stones," says he, in his autobiography, "is a never-ending labor on one of those New England farms. Pick as closely as you may, the next plowing turns up a fresh eruption of boulders and pebbles, from the size of a hickory nut to that of a tea-kettle, and as this work is mainly to be done in March or April, when the earth is saturated with ice-cold water, if not also whitened with falling snow, youngsters soon learn to regard it with detesta-

tion. I filially love the 'Granite State,' but could well excuse the absence of sundry subdivisions of her granite." The fact seems to have been that, however faithful and careful in the performance of these farm duties, repulsive as they were to him, Horace's mind, from early infancy, craved *knowledge*. As a very young child, he took to learning with the same prompt instinctive and irrepressible love with which a duck is said to take to the water. Like many other distinguished men, he found his first and best instructor in his mother—who possessed a strong mind, a retentive memory, a perpetual overflow of good spirits, a great fondness for reading, and an exhaustless fund of songs, ballads, and stories—to which latter, the boy listened greedily, sitting on the floor at her feet, while she spun and talked with equal energy. "They served," says Mr. Greeley, "to awaken in me a *thirst* for knowledge, and a lively interest in learning and history." At the maternal knee —and ever with the hum of the spinning wheel as an accompaniment—the boy learned, also, to read, before he had learned to talk; that is, before he could pronounce the longer words; and from the fact that the book lay in her lap, he soon acquired a facility of reading from it sidewise, or upside down, as readily as in the usual fashion—which knack became "a subject of neighborhood wonder and fabulous exaggeration." At three years of age he could read easily and correctly any of the books prepared for children, and, by the time he was four years old, any book whatever. His third winter was spent at the house of his grandfather Woodburn, at Londonderry, where he attended the district school, as he continued to do most of the winters and some of the summer months during the next three years. At this school he soon attained remarkable distinction by his cleverness at *spelling*, which was his passion. In this he was unrivalled—no word could ever puzzle him—he spelt in

school and out of it—at work or at play—and, for hours at a time, he would lie upon the floor of his grandfather's house spelling all the hard words which he could find in the Bible and the few other books within reach. Of course, he was the great hero of the "spelling match"—that favorite diversion of New England district schools—and there are some still living who love to recount how Horace, then a little "white, tow-headed boy," would sometimes fall asleep (for these "matches" were generally held in the evening) and when it came his turn, his neighbors would give him an anxious nudge, and he would wake instantly, spell off his word, and drop asleep again in a moment. Frequently carried to school when the snow was too deep for him to wade through, on his aunt's shoulder, the eager little fellow stoutly maintained his place among larger and older scholars, and manfully mastered the slender information which he could glean from the pages of Webster's Spelling Book (then displacing Dilworth's), Bingham's Grammar, called "The Ladies' Accidence" and "The Columbian Orator." This latter, the first book he ever owned, had been given him by an uncle, while he lay sick with the measles, in his fourth year, at his grandfather's. It was his prized text book for years, and he learned all its dialogues, speeches, extracts of poetry, by heart, among others that well-known oration, so familiar to our boyish memories, commencing,

> "You'd scarce expect one of my age,
> To speak in public on the stage."

When he was six years old, his father removed to a larger farm in Bedford, New Hampshire, which he had undertaken to work "on shares," and until his tenth year, Horace's schooling was combined with a pretty fair share of work. "Here," he says, "I first learned that this is a world of hard work.

Often called out of bed at dawn to "ride horse to plow" among the growing corn, potatoes, and hops, we would get as much plowed by nine to ten o'clock A.M., as could be hoed that day, when I would be allowed to start for school, where I sometimes arrived as the forenoon session was half through. In winter, our work was lighter; but the snow was often deep and drifted, the cold intense, the north wind piercing, and our clothing thin; besides which, the term rarely exceeded, and sometimes fell short of, two months. I am grateful for much—schooling included—to my native State; yet, I trust her boys of to-day generally enjoy better facilities for education at her common schools than they afforded me half a century ago." Young Greeley had no right to attend the school at Bedford, as he did not belong to the district—yet he was complimented by a permission granted by an express vote of the school committee, that "no pupils from other towns should be received" at their school, "*except Horace Greeley alone.*" Among the few adjuvants to knowledge which the boy enjoyed, was the *weekly newspaper* which came to his father's house, "*The Farmer's Cabinet,*" mild in politics and scanty, if not heavy, in its literary contents; but, for all that, a "connecting link" between the little homestead and the great outside, unknown world. Perhaps it unconsciously strengthened the youth's impulse toward becoming a printer and a newspaper man.

For, it is related of him, that previously to this, while one day watching, most intently, the operation of shoeing a horse, the blacksmith observed to him: "You'd better come with me and learn the trade." "No," was the prompt reply, "I'm going to be a printer," a positive choice of a career by so diminutive a specimen of humanity, which mightily amused the bystanders. In his tenth year, however, a change had come to the family fortunes. His father, like many other hard-working farmers in

New Hampshire, was not able to "weather the storm," which made the year 1820 memorable to many as "hard times." He failed, and having made an "arrangement with his creditors" (for he was a truly honest man), gave up his farm, temporarily, and removed to another in the adjoining town of Bedford, where he commenced the raising of hops, mostly on shares. In two years, however, despite his industry, he came back to his old Amherst home poorer than ever; and, finally, became utterly bankrupt, was sold out by the sheriff, and fled from the State to avoid arrest. He wandered away to Westhaven, Rutland county, Vermont, where he fortunately succeeded in hiring a small house, to which, in January, 1821, he brought his family. Stripped of all but the barest necessities, the little family now commenced life literally anew. Horace's life at Westhaven, during the next five years, was much the same as before—plenty of hard work—rough fare, and an insatiable cramming of book knowledge, varied, sometimes, by playing draughts, or "checkers," in which game he is a great proficient. Yet the Yankee element was strong within him. He was always doing something, and he always had something to sell. He saved nuts and pitch pine roots for kindling wood, exchanging them at the country store for articles which he needed.

The only out-door sport which the boy seemed to like, was "bee-hunting," which frequently yielded a snug little sum of pocket-money; and when a peddler happened along with books in his wagon, or pack, the hard earned pennies were pretty sure to leave Horace's pockets. But, while he could *earn*, he had little or no faculty of *bargaining*, or of *making* money. In his eleventh year, he heard that an apprentice was wanted in a newspaper office at Whitehall; and, true to his old fancy of becoming a printer, he trudged over there on foot, a distance of nine miles, but was refused the place on account of his youth.

Westhaven, at that time, was a desperate place for drinking, and Horace and his brother had early imbibed a thorough aversion to the use of intoxicating liquors and tobacco. Asking his father, one day, what he'd give him if he would not drink a drop of liquor till he was twenty-one; his father thinking it, perhaps, a mere passing whim of the boy's, replied "I'll give you a dollar." It was a bargain, and from that day to this, Horace has not knowingly taken into his system any alcoholic liquid, and has been a distinguished and fearless advocate of teetotalism. During his Westhaven life, also, he became—although surrounded by orthodoxy, and descended from orthodox parents—by the natural process of his own reasoning, a Universalist—yet he never entered a church, or heard a sermon, of that faith, until he was twenty years old. This all arose from his chance reading, in a school book, of the history of Demetrius Poliorcetes, one of Alexander the Great's generals, whose conduct towards the ungrateful Athenians, as related by the earlier historians, presents an example of magnanimity, as sublime as it is rare. Reflecting with admiration on this case, Greeley, young as he was, "was moved," as he says, "to inquire if a spirit so nobly, so wisely transcending the mean and savage impulse which man too often disguises as justice, when it is in essence revenge, might not be reverentially termed divine;" in fact, if it did not "image forth" the attitude of an all-wise, just, yet merciful God, toward an erring humanity. And though, in his career, the subject of our sketch has confined himself, by the very necessity of his nature, chiefly to the advancement of material interests, yet it is not to be doubted that this early change of religious belief gave to his subsequent life much of its direction and character.

By the spring of 1826, Horace had exhausted the schools and the capabilities of his teachers, and was impatient to be at the

types. To his oft repeated importunities, his father strongly objected—partly, because he needed the lad's help at home on the farm; partly, because he feared that one so young, so gentle, awkward, and with so little "push" about him, would be unable to battle his way among strangers. But, one day, Horace saw in the *Northern Spectator*, a weekly sheet (Adams in politics), published at East Poultney, Vermont, eleven miles from his home, a notice of a "boy wanted" in the office. Wringing from his father a reluctant consent to his applying for the place, he walked over to Poultney, came to an understanding with the proprietors, and returned home. A few days later, April 18th, 1826, his father took him down to the office and entered into a verbal agreement with the parties, for his son's services, to the effect that he was to remain at his apprenticeship with them till he was twenty years of age, be allowed his board only for six months, and thereafter $40 per annum for clothing. Leaving Horace at work in the printing office, Mr. Greeley returned home; and, shortly after, removed his residence to Wayne, Erie county, Pennsylvania. The new apprentice's experience at Poultney is thus related by himself:

"The organization and management of our establishment were vicious; for an apprentice should have one master, and I had a succession of them, and often two or three at once. These changes enabled me to demand and receive a more liberal allowance for the later years of my apprenticeship; but the office was too laxly ruled for the most part, and, as to instruction, every one had perfect liberty to learn what he could. In fact, as but two or at most three persons were employed in the printing department, it would have puzzled an apprentice to avoid a practical knowledge of whatever was done there. I had not been there a year before my hands were blistered and my back lamed by working off the very considerable edition of the paper on an old-fashioned, two-pull Ramage (wooden) press—a task beyond my boyish strength—and I can scarcely recall a day

wherein we were not hurried by our work. I would not imply that I worked too hard—yet I think few apprentices work more steadily and faithfully than I did throughout the four years and over of my stay in Poultney. While I lived at home, I had always been allowed a day's fishing, at least once a month, in spring and summer, and I once went hunting; but I never fished, nor hunted, nor attended a dance, nor any sort of party or fandango, in Poultney. I doubt that I even played a game of ball. Yet I was ever considerately and even kindly treated by those in authority over me, and I believe I generally merited and enjoyed their confidence and good-will. Very seldom was a word of reproach or dissatisfaction addressed to me by one of them. Though I worked diligently, I found much time for reading, and might have had more, had every leisure hour been carefully improved. * * * They say that apprenticeship is distasteful to and out of fashion with the boys of our day; if so, I regret it for their sakes. To the youth who asks, 'How shall I obtain an education?' I would answer, 'Learn a trade of a good master.' I hold firmly that most boys may thus better acquire the knowledge they need than by spending four years in college."

He speedily became one of the leading members of the village Debating Society, or Lyceum, as it was styled; and, to use the words of an old comrade, "whenever he was appointed to speak or to read an essay, he never wanted to be excused; he was always ready. He was exceedingly *interested* in the questions which he discussed, and stuck to his opinion against all opposition—not discourteously, but still *he stuck to it*, replying with the most perfect assurance to men of high station and of low. He had one advantage over all his fellow members; it was his memory. He had read every thing, and remembered the minutest details of important events; dates, names, places, figures, statistics—nothing had escaped him. He was never treated as a *boy* in the society, but as a man and an equal; and

his opinions were considered with as much deference as those of the judge or the sheriff—more, I think. To the graces of oratory he made no pretence, but he was a fluent and interesting speaker, and had a way of giving an unexpected turn to the debate by reminding members of a fact, well known but overlooked; or by correcting a misquotation, or by appealing to what are called first principles. He was an opponent to be afraid of; yet his sincerity and his earnestness were so evident, that those whom he most signally floored liked him none the less for it. He never lost his temper. In short, he spoke in his sixteenth year just as he speaks now." It may be added that then, as now, he was utterly oblivious of the niceties—we had almost said the proprieties—of dress, and his ill-fitted, and really insufficient clothing, excited the pity of a few considerate ones, and the frequent derision of many unthinking ones. But the forty dollars a year which was allowed him by his employers for clothing, was carefully husbanded and sent to his father, who was struggling with the difficulties of a new farm in the wilderness on the other side of the Alleghanies; and twice, during his Poultney residence, he visited those beloved parents, traversing the distance of six hundred miles, partly on foot, and partly by the tedious canal boat Among the incidents of his sojourn in Poultney that which made the most impression on his mind, was a fugitive slave chase. The State of New York had abolished slavery years before, but certain born slaves were to remain such till twenty-eight years old. One of these young negroes decamped from his master, in a neighboring New York town, to our village; where he was at work, when said master came over to reclaim and recover him. "I never saw," says Mr. Greeley, "so large a muster of men and boys so suddenly on our village-green as his advent incited; and the result was a speedy disappearance of the chattel, and the return

of his master, disconsolate and niggerless, to the place whence he came. Every thing on our side was *impromptu* and instinctive; and nobody suggested that envy or hate of "the South," or of New York, or of the master, had impelled the rescue. Our people hated injustice and oppression, and *acted as if they couldn't help it.*"

In June, 1830, the *Spectator* and its office were discontinued, and Greeley, released from his engagement some months earlier than he had expected, started off, with little else than a wardrobe which could be stuffed into his pocket, a sore leg, a retentive memory and a knowledge of the art of printing—to see his father. After a while we find him working for eleven dollars per month, in the office of a "Jackson paper," at Sodus, New York, and still later for fifteen dollars per month in the office of the Gazette, a weekly paper published at Erie, Pennsylvania. At first he was refused work on account of his extremely verdant appearance; but, finally, was taken in on trial and ere long was in high favor with all who knew him. Seven months passed away, and again we find our hero trying his fortunes in a new place—this time, in New York itself. His arrival and adventures in the "Great Metropolis," in which he was, in the course of years, to become so well known, much talked about, and useful a citizen, are best described in his own words.

"It was, if I recollect aright, the 17th of August, 1831. I was twenty years old the preceding February; tall, slender, pale and plain, with ten dollars in my pocket, summer clothing worth perhaps as much more, nearly all on my back, and a decent knowledge of so much of the Art of Printing as a boy will usually learn in the office of a country newspaper. But I knew no human being within two hundred miles, and my unmistakably rustic manner and address did not favor that immediate command of remunerating employment which was my most urgent need. However, the world was all before me; my

personal estate, tied up in a pocket-handkerchief, did not at all encumber me; and I stepped lightly off the boat and away from the sound of the detested hiss of escaping steam, walking into and up Broad street in quest of a boarding-house. I found and entered one at or near the corner of Wall; but the price of board given me was six dollars per week; so I did not need the giver's candidly kind suggestion that I would probably prefer one where the charge was more moderate. Wandering thence, I cannot say how, to the North River side, I halted next at 168 West street, where the sign of "Boarding" on a humbler edifice fixed my attention. I entered, and was offered shelter and subsistence at $2.50 per week, which seemed more rational, and I closed the bargain.

Having breakfasted, I began to ransack the city for work, and, in my total ignorance, traversed many streets where none could possibly be found. In the course of that day and the next, however, I must have visited fully two thirds of the printing-offices on Manhattan island, without a gleam of success. It was mid-summer, when business in New York is habitually dull; and my youth and unquestionable air of country greenness must have told against me. When I called at the *Journal of Commerce*, its editor, Mr. David Hale, bluntly told me I was a runaway-apprentice from some country office; which was a very natural, though mistaken, presumption. I returned to my lodging on Saturday evening, thoroughly weary, disheartened, disgusted with New York, and resolved to shake its dust from my feet next morning, while I could still leave with money in my pocket, and before its alms-house could foreclose upon me.

But that was not to be. On Sunday afternoon and evening, several young Irishmen called at Mr. McGolrick's, in their holiday saunterings about town; and, being told that I was a young printer in quest of work, interested themselves in my effort, with the spontaneous kindness of their race. One among them happened to know a place where printers were wanted, and gave me the requisite direction; so that, on visiting the designated spot next morning, I readily found employment; and thus,

when barely three days a resident, I had found anchorage in New York.

The printing establishment was John T. West's, over McElrath & Bangs' publishing-house, 68 Chatham street, and the work was at my call, simply because no printer who knew the city would accept it. It was the composition of a very small (32mo) New Testament, in double columns, of Agate type, each column barely twelve ems wide, with a centre column of notes in Pearl, barely four ems wide: the text thickly studded with references by Greek and superior letters to the notes, which of course were preceded and discriminated by corresponding indices, with prefatory and supplementary remarks on each Book, set in Pearl, and only paid for as Agate. The type was considerably smaller than any to which I had been accustomed; the narrow measure and thickly-sown Italics of the text, with the strange characters employed as indices, rendered it the slowest and by far the most difficult work I had ever undertaken; while the making up, proving, and correcting, twice and even thrice over, preparatory to stereotyping, nearly doubled the time required for ordinary composition. I was never a swift type-settter; I aimed to be an assiduous and correct one; but my proofs on this work at first looked as though they had caught the chicken-pox, and were in the worst stage of a profuse eruption. For the first two or three weeks, being sometimes kept waiting for letter, I scarcely made my board; while, by diligent type-sticking through twelve to fourteen hours per day, I was able, at my best, to earn but a dollar per day. As scarcely another compositor could be induced to work on it more than two days, I had this job in good part to myself, and I persevered to the end of it. I had removed, very soon after obtaining it, to Mrs. Mason's shoemaker boarding-house at the corner of Chatham and Duane streets, nearly opposite my work; so that I was enabled to keep doing nearly all the time I did not need for meals and sleep. When it was done, I was out of work for a fortnight, in spite of my best efforts to find more; so I attended, as an unknown spectator, the sittings of the Tariff Convention, which was held at the American Insti-

tute, north end of the City Hall Park, and presided over by Hon. William Wilkins, of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. I next found work in Ann street, on a short-lived monthly, where my pay was not forthcoming; and the next month saw me back at West's, where a new work—a commentary on the Book of Genesis, by Rev. George Bush—had come in; and I worked on it throughout. The chirography was blind; the author made many vexatious alterations in proof; the page was small and the type close; but, though the reverse of *fat*, in printers' jargon, it was not nearly so abominably lean as the Testament; and I regretted to reach the end of it. When I did, I was again out of work, and seriously meditated seeking employment at something else than printing; but the winter was a hard one, and business in New York stagnant to an extent not now conceivable."

From January, 1832, and through the dreary "cholera summer," Greeley worked on the *Spirit of the Times*, a new sporting paper, and there gained the devoted friendship of its foreman, Mr. Francis V. Story, with whom he afterwards entered into partnership. The main dependence of their business was the printing of Sylvester's "Bank-Note Reporter;" and the publication of Dr. H. D. Shepard's "penny-paper," *The Morning Post*, and the pioneer of the cheap-for-cash dailies in New York City. Hiring rooms on the south-east corner of Nassau and Liberty streets, the young "typos" invested their scanty capital (less than $200); obtained $40 worth of material, on credit, from Mr. George Bruce, the eminent type founder, and commenced their business career. The *Post*, however, was "ahead of the Age"—and died, when scarcely a month old, leaving its printers "hard aground on a lee shore, with little prospect of getting off." Fortunately, however, they escaped total bankruptcy, by a successful sale of the wrecked paper to another party, in whose hands it was teetotally extinguished, "forever and aye." Working early and late, looking sharply on every side for jobs,

and economizing to the last degree, the firm were beginning to make decided headway, when Mr. Story was drowned, in June, 1833. His place was taken by his brother-in law, Mr. Jonas Winchester—since widely known in the newspaper world; and again the concern was favored with steady and moderate prosperity, until, in March, 1834, they issued the first number of *The New Yorker*, a large, fair, cheap weekly, devoted to current literature, etc., of which Mr. Greeley took the sole editorial supervision for the next seven years and a half. Two years after its birth the partnership was dissolved and Greeley took the New Yorker, which held its own pretty well until the commercial revulsion of 1837. In July, 1836, Mr. Greeley had married, deeming himself worth $5000 and the owner of a remunerative business. To a man of so singularly independent and honest a character as his, the debts incurred were a source of the most terrible mental anxiety and suffering. In his autobiography, he speaks most feelingly of the horrors of bankruptcy and debt, closing with these intense but truthful remarks:

"For my own part—and I speak from sad experience—I would rather be a convict in State prison, a slave in a rice-swamp, than to pass through life under the harrow of debt. Let no young man misjudge himself unfortunate, or truly poor, so long as he has the full use of his limbs and faculties and is substantially free from debt. Hunger, cold, rags, hard work, contempt, suspicion, unjust reproach, are disagreeable; but debt is infinitely worse than them all. And, if it had pleased God to spare either or all of my sons to be the support and solace of my declining years, the lesson which I should have most earnestly sought to impress upon them is—"Never run into debt! Avoid pecuniary obligation as you would pestilence or famine. If you have but fifty cents, and can get no more for a week, buy a peck of corn, parch it and live on it, rather than owe any man a dollar?" Of course, I know that some men must do business that involves risks, and must often give notes

and other obligations, and I do not consider him really in debt who can lay his hands directly on the means of paying, at some little sacrifice, all he owes; I speak of *real* debt—that which involves risk or sacrifice on the one side, obligation and dependence on the other—and I say, from all such, let every youth humbly pray God to preserve him evermore!"

The *New Yorker* came to an end in March, 1841, with an outstanding book account of some $10,000 due to its editor and proprietor, of which, it is needless to say, he never afterwards saw the first cent. Among the "memorabilia" of its history is the fact that Hon. Henry J. Raymond, late the chief editor of the New York Times, and a "power" in the American press, commenced his editorial life as assistant editor of the New Yorker on a salary of $8 a week.

While running this paper, Mr. Greeley, in addition to supplying leading articles to the *Daily Whig* for several months, undertook, in March, 1838, the entire editorship of the *Jeffersonian*, a weekly campaign paper, published for a year, at Albany, by the Whig Central Committee of the State of New York. The sheet had a circulation of 15,000, its editor $1000 salary and it was a "rousing" *good* political paper, aiming "to convince, not to inflame, to enlighten, not to blind." The energy, industry, and courage (mental as well as physical), required to edit a weekly paper in New York City and another in Albany, can be imagined only by those who understand the nature of an editor's duties. Into the Harrison campaign of 1840, Greeley threw his whole energies, issuing, on the 2d of May, the first number of *The Log Cabin*, a weekly paper, appearing simultaneously in New York and Albany, for the six months' campaign. It was conducted with wonderful spirit and made an unprecedented hit, 48,000 of the first number being sold in a day and the issue increasing to between 80,000 and

90,000 copies per week. Greeley's own interest in the questions at issue was most intense, and his labors were incessant and arduous. He wrote articles, he made speeches, he sat on committees, he travelled, he gave advice, he suggested plans, while he had two newspapers on his hands and a load of debt upon his shoulders." Designed only as a campaign paper, the Log Cabin survived the emergency for which it had been created, and, as a family political paper, continued with moderate success until finally merged, together with the New Yorker, in the *Tribune*.

The *Tribune* first saw light on the 10th of April, 1841, with a "start" of 600 subscribers, and a borrowed capital of $1000. Its first experiences were not altogether promising, but it was full of *fight*, and the foolish attempt of a rival, *The Sun*, to crush it, aroused the pugnacity of its editor to its fullest extent. The public became interested, also; and by its seventh week, it had an edition of 11,000. New presses became necessary—advertisements poured in; and then—just "in the nick of time"—Mr. Thomas McElrath was secured as a business partner, and with him came also the order and efficiency, which have rendered the *Tribune* establishment one of the best conducted newspaper offices in the world.

Now came another epoch in Horace Greeley's career—*viz.:* that of *Fourierism*. A Socialist in theory he had been for years before the Tribune was commenced—and, when Albert Brisbane returned from Paris, in 1841, full to overflowing of the principles of the Apostle of the Doctrine of Association, Greeley became one of his earliest and most devoted followers. He wrote, talked, lectured on Fourierism;—but, with the famous six months' newspaper discussion of the subject, in 1846, between Greeley and his former lieutenant, H. J. Raymond, then of the Courier and Enquirer—the subject died out of the

public mind. In April, 1842, the Tribune, which had started as a penny paper, commenced its second volume at two cents per number, without any appreciable loss of its subscription. At the same time, Greeley and McElrath commenced a monthly magazine, called "*The American Laborer*," devoted chiefly to the advocacy of protection. Gradually, also, they got into a somewhat extensive book publishing business, which, however, proved unprofitable and was relinquished, excepting the "Whig Almanac," a valuable statistical and political compend, which, in 1868, enjoyed the honor of being entirely reprinted by the process of photo-lithography. In 1843, began the *Evening Tribune*, and in 1845, the *Semi-Weekly*. Water-Cure, the Erie Railroad, Irish Repeal, Protection and Clay were the principal objects to which the Tribune gave the full weight of its powerful influence. In 1845, the Tribune office was burned; and that year and the two following were years full of hard knocks received, and good earnest blows heartily given, against Capital punishment, the Mexican War, Slavery, Orthodoxy, the Native American party, the drama, etc., etc. In 1848, Mr. Greeley was chosen to represent the Congressional District in the House of Representatives for a short session; and hardly was he seated there before he introduced a Land Reform Bill; "walked into" the tariff; made in the Tribune a grand *exposé* of the Congressional Mileage system (which roused the wrath of that honorable body and became the talk of the nation), and "pitched into," generally, all the money-spending, time-wasting expedients by which public interests and business were delayed. The tide of corruption, however, was too great to be successfully stemmed by *one* honest man, and Greeley's three months career as a Congressman may be summed up in this, that "as a member of Congress, he was truer to himself and dared more in

behalf of his constituents than any man who ever sat for one session only in the House of Representatives."

Meantime, the *Tribune* establishment was on the high road to success; and was valued by competent judges at $100,000, a low estimate perhaps, when we consider that its annual profits amounted to over $30,000. Both of its proprietors were now in the enjoyment of incomes more than sufficient for what they needed—and now they determined to give a practical proof of their belief in a doctrine which they had earnestly advocated for several years previous—*viz.:* the advantages of *associated labor and profit.* The property was divided into one hundred $1000 shares, each of which entitled the holder to one vote in the decisions of the company—thus conferring the dignity and advantage of *ownership* on many interested parties, while the contesting power practically remained with Greeley and McElrath. It is needless to say that the "Tribune Association" has been an eminent success.

In 1850, a volume of Mr. Greeley's lectures and essays was published, under the title of "Hints toward Reform." In April, 1851, Mr. Greeley visited England, to view the "World's Fair" and, on his arrival there, found that he had been appointed, by the American commissioner, as a member of the jury on hardware. The first month of his brief holiday was conscientiously employed in the discharge of the tedious and onerous duties thus assigned him;—and, at the banquet, given at Richmond, by the London commissioners to the foreign commissioners, he had the honor of proposing, with a speech, the health of Joseph Paxton, the architect of the Crystal Palace. He also did good service to the cause of cheap popular literature, by his evidence given, as an American newspaper editor, before two sessions of a committee appointed by Parliament for the consideration of the proposed repeal of "taxes on knowledge," *viz.:*

the duty on advertisements, and on every periodical containing news. A rapid "run" through the continent, and Greeley was back in his sanctum in the *Tribune* building, by the middle of August, and his experiences were given to the world in an interesting volume entitled, "Glances at Europe." With the defeat of General Scott, and the annihilation of the old Whig party, in November, 1852, the *Tribune* ceased to be a party paper, and its editor a party man. The same year he performed a sad but grateful token of regard to the memory of one whom he devotedly admired, by finishing Sargent's Life of Henry Clay. And, as he found himself now released from the shackles of party politics, he began to yearn for the repose and calm delights of moral life. He purchased a neat farm of fifty acres in Westchester county, where, in such scanty leisure as his editorial life allows him, he has put into practical operation some of his long cherished theories in regard to farming, etc.

In 1856, he published an able "History of the struggle for Slavery Extension, or Restriction, in the United States, from 1787 to 1856;" and, in 1859, he made a trip to California, *via* Kansas, Pike's Peak and Utah, being received, at many principal towns and cities, by the municipal authorities and citizens, whom he addressed on politics, the Pacific railroad, temperance, etc., and on his return, published the facts in regard to the mining regions which he had observed, in a duodecimo volume, which sold largely.

Into all the momentous issues of the war of the rebellion, Mr. Greeley, as was to have been expected from his position and his antecedents, threw the full weight of his immense influence and endeavors. During the great "Draft Riot" of New York, in July, 1863, he was "marked" as an obnoxious person, and a house where he had formerly boarded was entered and completely sacked by the mob. The office of the Tribune was also

attacked by the mob, who sought diligently for him, but the gallant efforts of the police soon dispersed them. In July, 1864, he was induced, by the pretended anxiety of certain parties claiming to represent the Confederate Government, and who desired to enter into negotiations for peace, to use his personal influence with President Lincoln for an interview, but Mr. Lincoln's adroitness soon elicited the fact that these self-styled pacificators had no real authority to act in the premises, and the matter resulted only in the issue of the celebrated "To whom it may concern" message.

In 1865–67, Mr. Greeley's history of the war was published in two volumes, under the title of "The American Conflict," had an immense sale, and is justly regarded, North and South, as the best *political* history of that struggle, yet presented to the public.

Since the completion of that work, he has also published a series of essays on "Political Economy," giving in his own peculiar yet forcible way the arguments, new and old, in favor of protection to American industry; a revised and enlarged edition of his autobiography, or "Recollections of a Busy Life," a volume of "Letters from the Southwest and Texas," first contributed to the *Tribune* while he was visiting that section of country; and a very sensible and, on the whole, modest book on agricultural topics, entitled "What I Know About Farming." This work, mainly in consequence of its title, has been the fruitful source of innumerable jokes, good, bad and indifferent, by all the newspaper wits and witlings from Maine to Mexico. Probably not one in fifty of them ever saw the book or read a page of it.

Mr. Greeley is a very good farmer; not, perhaps, so observant of all those niceties and elegancies which make fancy farming ordinarily so brilliant but costly a luxury as some others, but a farmer who understands how to make farming pay, even when

the farm was originally a poor and unpromising one. His book is a plain and graphic account of his own experiences, not sparing his blunders, and it is a book from which any practical farmer can derive many beneficial hints and suggestions.

It has always been a matter of wonder to us, who have known Mr. Greeley for so many years, that he should be ambitious for office. That he possesses the qualifications in the way of broad and comprehensive views, large political and politico-economical attainments, and unflinching honesty and uprightness, which would fit him for almost any office in the gift of the people, we do not doubt. He might be the better for a higher degree of refinement and greater courtesy of manner; but his bluff and sometimes awkward address is a part of his nature, and is as inseparable from him as his skin. Yet why he should be ambitious to be a member of Congress, a Governor, a United States Senator, or a President, has always passed our comprehension. As editor of the *New York Tribune*, he wielded an influence infinitely greater than any Congressman, Governor, Senator, or President could ever hope to exercise.

From a quarter to half a million of men believed in Horace Greeley as religiously as they believed in their Bibles, and many of them reverenced his opinions more than those of any other human being. He was, in the Republican administration, and had been for a dozen years and more, "the power behind the throne greater than the throne." It could not be for the emoluments of office, for though he can hardly be called rich, being too liberal and lavish a giver ever to roll up a fortune, still his income was very little, if at all, less than that of the President of the United States, and it was not for a four years' term, but for life.

Yet there could be no question about the ambition. Though seldom gratified, (he had been a member of Congress for one

session, and a member of the Constitutional Convention, beside some minor appointments, not wholly political,) its existence was evident always. It was, perhaps, most conspicuous in his letter to the old firm, as he termed them, of Seward, Weed & Co., first published ten or twelve years ago, and which he has republished himself within the present year. From any other standpoint than the somewhat peculiar one occupied by Mr. Greeley himself, the complaints that Mr. Seward had not bestowed upon him this or that office, seem whimsical and childish. At the time when this letter was written, Horace Greeley wielded a power essentially greater than William H. Seward had ever exerted. He was the cause of Mr. Lincoln's nomination and Mr. Seward's defeat in the struggle for the Presidency, in 1860 and through the civil war, as through European wars since, if he did not organize victory, he often precipitated action.

It has been a characteristic of Mr. Greeley hitherto, that greatly as he might desire office (and we are bound to believe for no ignoble purpose, but solely that he might benefit his country), he was very sure by bringing forward some whim or crotchet, which he knew to be unpopular, but which he had adopted, to destroy his chances of election. He had done this so many times that his warmest friends had begun to be doubtful of the propriety of giving him a nomination. That he had any aspirations for the Presidency would two years ago have been regarded as a huge joke. But it is pretty well settled that he has been for years aiming in that direction.

Though he has acted with the Republican party ever since its existence, except in some local matters, where a bolt was certainly allowable, yet he was known to entertain views differing from many of the leaders in regard to the conduct of the war, the proclamation of universal amnesty and impartial suffrage

the bailing of Jefferson Davis, compensation for the slaves, etc., etc.

About a year and a half since, a New York daily paper, whose editor was Mr. Greeley's bitterest personal enemy (and he has some very bitter ones), began to dedicate two columns of his paper daily to the record of the doings of "Useless S. Grant" and his rival for the Presidency, whom he announced sometimes as "Useful H. Greeley," and sometimes as "The Great and Good Dr. Horace Greeley of Texas and Oregon." The whole affair was intended as a personal joke of huge proportions, but of so coarse a character that it was supposed every one would see through it.

But what this Ishmaelite editor intended as a stupendous joke came in time to be considered by a large proportion of the people as sober earnest. Mr. Greeley had been gradually drawing away from the Administration. Identified with the Fenton wing of the Republican party in New York, he soon drew down upon himself the bitter hostility of Mr. Roscoe Conkling and his friends, and as Mr. Conkling had the ear of the President in regard to New York appointments, Mr. Greeley's friends were mercilessly slaughtered. Soon there came other grievances; Mr. Greeley had labored earnestly, and with all the intensity of his will, to have one or two men removed from important and lucrative Government appointments in New York city, on the alleged ground of their incompetency and corruption. That he fully believed the charges which he brought against them, and which he brought a large array of facts to sustain, no one who knows him will doubt for a moment. But the President was reluctant to remove these men, and when he finally felt compelled to do so, he gave to the chief offender a certificate of character, which was in substance a declaration that he did not believe the charges made against him.

Soon after this there was a strong pressure made for President

Grant's renomination, and Mr. Greeley, who has been a consistent advocate of one term for the Presidency for many years, denounced this movement in unmeasured terms. He also made charges of nepotism and favoritism against the President. Other prominent men joined in this opposition to the President, and it was at length determined to hold a Convention of Republicans opposed to the renomination of President Grant, in Cincinnati, in the first week in May, 1872. The call for this convention came from Mr. Greeley's life-long enemies, the Free-Traders, and it was supposed that Judge David Davis of Illinois, or Mr. Charles Francis Adams, or possibly, Judge Trumbull of Illinois would be its candidate. But Mr. Greeley's friends (we hardly believe he himself gave anything more than a passive assent to their exertions) had been active in securing delegates to the convention, and at its meeting, after the adoption of a very good platform, which referred the question of free-trade back to the Congressional Districts for full adjudication by the election of representatives on that issue, Horace Greeley was nominated for the Presidency on the sixth ballot.

At first the news took the whole country by surprise, and it was received in many quarters with distrust, and in some with denunciation. But it soon appeared that very many of the Southern people were in favor of the nomination. The Democracy, though acknowledging that it was a bitter pill to be obliged to vote for their most virulent enemy, yet wheeled into line, and having no nominee of their own on whom they could unite, in their State Conventions, with an extraordinary unanimity, sanctioned the nomination. The disaffected Republicans, at first a small body, grew in numbers daily, and unlikely as it seemed in 1871, he would be a bold man who should say to-day, that the election of Horace Greeley as President of the United States, in November, 1872, was either impossible or very impro-

bable. The address and platform of the Cincinnati Convention, to which we have already alluded, was as follows:

THE ADDRESS.

The administration now in power has rendered itself guilty of wanton disregard of the laws of the land, and usurped powers not granted by the Constitution. It has acted as if the laws had binding force only for those who are governed, and not for those who govern. It has thus struck a blow at the fundamental principles of constitutional government and the liberty of the citizen. The President of the United States has openly used the powers and opportunities of his high office for the promotion of personal ends. He has kept notoriously corrupt and unworthy men in places of power and responsibility to the detriment of the public interest. He has used the public service of the Government as a machinery of partisan and personal influence, and interfered with tyrannical arrogance in the political affairs of States and municipalities. He has rewarded, with influential and lucrative offices, men who had acquired his favor by valuable presents; thus stimulating demoralization of our political life by his conspicuous example. He has shown himself deplorably unequal to the tasks imposed upon him by the necessities of the country, and culpably careless of the responsibilities of his high office. The partisans of the Administration, assuming to be the Republican party and controlling its organization, have attempted to justify such wrongs and palliate such abuses, to the end of maintaining partisan ascendancy. They have stood in the way of necessary investigations and indispensable reforms, pretending that no serious fault could be found with the present administration of public affairs; thus seeking to blind the eyes of the people. They have kept alive the passions and resentments of the late civil war, to use them for their own advantage.

They have resorted to arbitrary measures in direct conflict with the organic law, instead of appealing to the better instincts and latent patriotism of the Southern people by restoring to them those rights, the enjoyment of which is indispensable for a successful administration of their local affairs, and would tend to move a patriotic and hopeful national feeling. They have degraded themselves and the name of their party, once justly entitled to the confidence of the nation, by a base sycophancy to the dispenser of executive power and patronage unworthy of Republican freemen; they have sought to stifle the voice of just criticism, to stifle the moral sense of the people, and to subjugate public opinion by tyrannical party discipline. They are striving to maintain themselves in authority for selfish ends by an unscrupulous use of the power which rightfully belongs to the people, and should be employed only in the service of the country. Believing that an organization thus led and controlled can no

longer be of service to the best interests of the Republic, we have resolved to make an independent appeal to the sober judgment, conscience, and patriotism of the American people.

THE PLATFORM.

We, the Liberal Republicans of the United States, in National Convention assembled at Cincinnati, proclaim the following principles as essential to just government:

I. We recognize the equality of all men before the law, and hold that it is the duty of Government in its dealings with the people to mete out equal and exact justice to all of whatever nativity, race, color, or persuasion, religious or political.

II. We pledge ourselves to maintain the union of these States, emancipation and enfranchisement, and to oppose any reopening of the questions settled by the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution.

III. We demand the immediate and absolute removal of all disabilities imposed on account of the Rebellion, which was finally subdued seven years ago, believing that universal amnesty will result in complete pacification in all sections of the country.

IV. Local self-government, with impartial suffrage, will guard the rights of all citizens more securely than any centralized power. The public welfare requires the supremacy of the civil over the military authority, and freedom of person under the protection of the habeas corpus. We demand for the individual the largest liberty consistent with public order; for the State, self-government, and for the nation a return to the methods of peace and the constitutional limitations of power.

V. The Civil Service of the Government has become a mere instrument of partisan tyranny and personal ambition and an object of selfish greed. It is a scandal and reproach upon free institutions, and breeds a demoralization dangerous to the perpetuity of Republican Government. We therefore regard such thorough reforms of the Civil Service as one of the most pressing necessities of the hour; that honesty, capacity, and fidelity constitute the only valid claim to public employment; that the offices of the Government cease to be a matter of arbitrary favoritism and patronage, and that public station become again a post of honor. To this end it is imperatively required that no President shall be a candidate for reëlection.

VI. We demand a system of Federal taxation which shall not unnecessarily interfere with the industry of the people, and which shall provide the means necessary to pay the expenses of the Government, economically administered, the pensions, the interest on the public debt, and a moderate reduction annually of the principal thereof; and, recognizing that

there are in our midst honest but irreconcilable differences of opinion with regard to the respective systems of Protection and Free-Trade, we remit the discussion of the subject to the people in their Congress Districts, and to the decision of Congress thereon, wholly free of Executive interference or dictation.

VII. The public credit must be sacredly maintained, and we denounce repudiation in every form and guise.

VIII. A speedy return to specie payment is demanded alike by the highest considerations of commercial morality and honest government.

IX. We remember with gratitude the heroism and sacrifices of the soldiers and sailors of the Republic, and no act of ours shall ever detract from their justly earned fame or the full reward of their patriotism.

X. We are opposed to all further grants of lands to railroads or other corporations. The public domain should be held sacred to actual settlers.

XI. We hold that it is the duty of the Government, in its intercourse with foreign nations, to cultivate the friendship of peace, by treating with all on fair and equal terms, regarding it alike dishonorable either to demand what is not right, or to submit to what is wrong.

XII. For the promotion and success of these vital principles, and the support of the candidates nominated by this convention, we invite and cordially welcome the coöperation of all patriotic citizens, without regard to previous affiliations.

HORACE WHITE,
Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions.

G. P. THURSTON, Secretary.

The officers of the Cincinnati Convention notified Mr. Greeley of his nomination in the following terms:

CINCINNATI, Ohio, May 3d, 1872.

DEAR SIR:—The National Convention of the Liberal Republicans of the United States have instructed the undersigned, President, Vice-President, and Secretaries of the Convention to inform you that you have been nominated as the candidate of the Liberal Republicans for the Presidency of the United States. We also submit to you the Address and Resolutions unanimously adopted by the Convention.

Be pleased to signify to us your acceptance of the platform and the nomination, and believe us, Very truly yours,

C. SCHURZ, President,
GEO. W. JULIAN, Vice-President.

WM. E. McLEAN,
JOHN G DAVIDSON,
J. H. RHODES,
} Secretaries.

Hon. HORACE GREELEY. *New York City.*

To this communication Mr. Greeley replied, on the 20th of May, as follows:

NEW YORK, May 20th, 1872.

GENTLEMEN:—I have chosen not to acknowledge your letter of the 3d inst. until I could learn how the work of your Convention was received in all parts of our great country, and judge whether that work was approved and ratified by the mass of our fellow-citizens. Their response has from day to day reached me through telegrams, letters, and the comments of journalists independent of official patronage and indifferent to the smiles or frowns of power. The number and character of these unconstrained, unpurchased, unsolicited utterances, satisfy me that the movement which found expression at Cincinnati has received the stamp of public approval, and been hailed by a majority of our countrymen as the harbinger of a better day for the Republic.

I do not misinterpret this approval as especially complimentary to myself, nor even to the chivalrous and justly esteemed gentleman with whose name I thank your Convention for associating mine. I receive and welcome it as a spontaneous and deserved tribute to that admirable Platform of principles, wherein your Convention so tersely, so lucidly, so forcibly, set forth the convictions which impelled and the purposes which guided its course—a Platform which, casting behind it the wreck and rubbish of worn-out contentions and bygone feuds, embodies in fit and few words the needs and aspirations of to-day. Though thousands stand ready to condemn your every act, hardly a syllable of criticism or cavil has been aimed at your Platform, of which the substance may be fairly epitomized as follows:

I. All the political rights and franchises which have been acquired through our late bloody convulsion must and shall be guaranteed, maintained, enjoyed, respected, evermore.

II. All the political rights and franchises which have been lost through that convulsion should and must be promptly restored and reestablished, so that there shall be henceforth no proscribed class and no disfranchised caste within the limits of our Union, whose long estranged people shall reunite and fraternize upon the broad basis of Universal Amnesty with Impartial Suffrage.

III. That, subject to our solemn constitutional obligation to maintain the equal rights of all citizens, our policy should aim at local self-government, and not at centralization; that the civil authority should be supreme over the military; that the writ of habeas corpus should be jealously upheld as the safeguard of personal freedom; that the individual citizen should enjoy the largest liberty consistent with public order; and that there shall be no Federal subversion of the internal polity of the several States and municipalities, but that each shall be left free to enforce the

rights and promote the well-being of its inhabitants by such means as the judgment of its own people shall prescribe.

IV. There shall be a real and not merely a simulated Reform in the Civil Service of the Republic; to which end it is indispensable that the chief dispenser of its vast official patronage shall be shielded from the main temptation to use his power selfishly by a rule inexorably forbidding and precluding his reëlection.

V. That the raising of Revenue, whether by Tariff or otherwise, shall be recognized and treated as the people's immediate business, to be shaped and directed by them through their Representatives in Congress, whose action thereon the President must neither overrule by his veto, attempt to dictate, nor presume to punish, by bestowing office only on those who agree with him or withdrawing it from those who do not.

VI. That the Public Lands must be sacredly reserved for occupation and acquisition by cultivators, and not recklessly squandered on the projectors of Railroads for which our people have no present need, and the premature construction of which is annually plunging us into deeper and deeper abysses of foreign indebtedness.

VII. That the achievement of these grand purposes of universal beneficence is expected and sought at the hands of all who approve them irrespective of past affiliations.

VIII. That the public faith must at all hazards be maintained, and the national credit preserved.

IX. That the patriotic devotedness and inestimable services of our fellow-citizens who, as soldiers or sailors, upheld the flag and maintained the unity of the Republic shall ever be gratefully remembered and honorably requited.

These propositions, so ably and forcibly presented in the Platform of your Convention, have already fixed the attention and commanded the assent of a large majority of our countrymen, who joyfully adopt them, as I do, as the bases of a true, beneficent National Reconstruction—of a New Departure from jealousies, strifes, and hates, which have no longer adequate motive or even plausible pretext, into an atmosphere of peace, fraternity, and mutual good will. In vain do the drill-sergeants of decaying organizations flourish menacingly their truncheons and angrily insist that the files shall be closed and straightened; in vain do the whippers-in of parties once vital because rooted in the vital needs of the hour protest against straying and bolting, denounce men nowise their inferiors as traitors and renegades, and threaten them with infamy and ruin. I am confident that the American people have already made your cause their own, fully resolved that their brave hearts and strong arms shall bear it on to triumph. In this faith, and with the distinct understanding that, if elected, I shall be the President not of a party, but of the whole people, I accept your nomination in the confident trust that the masses of our countrymen, North and South, are eager to clasp hands across the bloody chasm which

has too long divided them, forgetting that they have been enemies in the joyful consciousness that they are and must henceforth remain brethren.

Yours, gratefully,

HORACE GREELEY.

To Hon. CARL SCHURZ, President; Hon. GEORGE W. JULIAN, Vice-President; and Messrs. WILLIAM E. MCLEAN, JOHN G. DAVIDSON, J. H. RHODES, Secretaries of the National Convention of the Liberal Republicans of the United States.

There can be no question that this movement if successful, must result in the breaking up of old party lines and organizations, and in the development of new issues and questions on which men who have hitherto been bitterly opposed to each other will find themselves working shoulder to shoulder; while many heretofore marching in the same ranks, will henceforth rally under different leaders and banners. Perhaps this may be well; at all events it is very likely to come; but whether the motley host who raise the Greeley banner, can, in the event of their success, be kept together for six months is not so certain; and whether Mr. Greeley will be the man to unite them in a harmonious party, when the great majority have hardly an opinion in common with him, is equally uncertain.

It had long been supposed by all who knew Mr. Greeley, that nothing but death could separate him from his beloved *Tribune;* but it is due to him to say that within a week after his nomination he withdrew from the editorship of the paper, which is, however, carried on in his interest by Mr. Whitelaw Reid, his able managing editor for the past three years.

We cannot, perhaps, better close this sketch of Mr. Greeley, than with the summary of his character given by his friend, Rev. Dr. Bellows, of the *Liberal Christian,* a summary which is as true as it is happy in its characterization:

"At home in city and country, and on both sides of the con-

tinent; with all the qualities of the Yankee—simple as shrewd, and shrewd as simple; good-natured as a healthy child, and passionate as the same on occasions; a wide lover of his species, and a tremendous hater of many of its individual varieties; open as the day, and inscrutable as the night; devoted to principle when not absorbed by measures; strong as a giant when some political Delilah has not shorn his locks in her lap; so pure that dirt won't stick to him, which makes him a little too free in going into it; not to be known by his associates, because quite superior to many of them; capable of a superhuman frankness and a Trappian silence—certainly America finds in him at this moment its most characteristic representative. He is the American *par excellence.*"

WILLIAM S. GROESBECK,

OF OHIO.

AMONG the Democratic members of Congress from Ohio, few, if any, have been more highly esteemed by all parties than Mr. Groesbeck. He has always borne the reputation of being a fair and honorable man, not a bitter partisan; and though he clings with all the tenacity of his ancestry to the Democratic faith, he holds to its large and really beneficent theories of human government, rather than to the narrow and pettifogging views of the lower order of politicians, who proclaim themselves Democrats without any just understanding of the real meaning of the name.

WILLIAM S. GROESBECK was born in Albany county, New York, in 1826. He was of Dutch ancestry, the Groesbecks being a numerous and highly respectable family among the early settlers of the Mohawk valley. We think he did not have the advantage of a full collegiate course, but he has been a diligent student, and is specially well versed in English literature. He studied law in Albany, and after being admitted to the bar removed to Cincinnati, in 1847, or 1848, and engaged in the practice of his profession. His legal attainments were such as speedily to bring him into prominence, and doubtless, into a lucrative practice. In 1852, we find him at the age of twenty-six, employed as a member of a commission in the difficult and

responsible work of codifying the laws of Ohio; he had already (in 1851) been a member of the State Constitutional Convention; and in both duties he had distinguished himself. In 1856, he was elected a Representative in Congress from Cincinnati, and was then a member of the Committee on Foreign affairs, an important position for so young and new a member. In January and February, 1861, he was a member of the "Peace Congress," and favored compromise measures. The next year he was a member of the Ohio Senate, but never a bitter opponent of the war. In 1866, when the "National Union Convention," or as it was appropriately named by a New York wit, "the Arm-in-arm Convention" met in Philadelphia, Mr. Groesbeck was one of its ablest members. Here, too, his best efforts were made in behalf of conciliation, and a reunion of the hitherto discordant elements at the North and South. When, in 1868, President Johnson was put on his trial, he secured the services of Mr. Groesbeck as one of his counsel, and his whole bearing during that protracted trial was such as to win for him the respect of his opponents.

Since 1868, Mr. Groesbeck has devoted himself very sedulously to his profession, but his party claim him as one of their very ablest men, and many of them have been very anxious to nominate him for the Presidency, but he has steadfastly resisted all overtures of the kind, and is understood to favor for his party the nomination of the Cincinnati candidates for the coming Presidential campaign.

Mr. Groesbeck is more a jurist than a politician, and though he possesses the ability to fill with credit any position, he would, we believe, enjoy judicial much more than political honors.

THOMAS A. HENDRICKS,

EX-UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM INDIANA.

THE name of HENDRICKS is an honorable one in Indiana. William Hendricks, a kinsman of Thomas, and an early settler in the territory, was Secretary of the Constitutional Convention which formed the present Constitution of the State, its first and only representative in Congress from 1816 to 1822; its Governor from 1822 to 1825, and a United States Senator from 1825 to 1837.

THOMAS, the subject of the present sketch, was born in Muskingum county, Ohio, September 7th, 1819. He graduated from S. Hanover College, Indiana, in 1841, studied law in Ohio and in Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, and was admitted to the bar in 1843. He removed immediately to Indianapolis, Indiana, and entered upon the practice of his profession, in which he soon attained reputation and success. But the law in Indiana as well as elsewhere in the West, is only a stepping-stone to a political career, and so Mr. Hendricks very naturally glided into politics. In 1848, he was elected to the State Legislature, but the following year declined a re-election; in 1850, he was an active and useful member of the Indiana Constitutional Convention, and in the autumn of that year was elected to Congress from the Indianapolis district. He was re-elected in 1852, and at the expiration of his second term (in March, 1855,) was appointed

Commissioner of the General Land Office, in which post he was continued by President Buchanan, but in 1859 resigned.

In 1862, he was elected United States Senator, serving from 1863 to 1869, and was a member of several important committees. Though belonging to and voting with the small Democratic minority in the Senate, during his whole Senatorial term, Senator Hendricks was not factious or bitterly partisan. He secured the respect of his opponents by his manly and dignified course, and retained the confidence and regard of his constituents, though the Republicans were in the ascendancy in the State during most of his term.

Since leaving the Senate, Mr. Hendricks, though active in politics, has not sought office. He exerts a controlling influence in Indiana, and has the confidence of the rank and file of the party, as a man of pure and patriotic motives. He has been often named for the Presidency, but is wise enough to see that his time has not yet come. He has recently been nominated by the Democrats for Governor of the State, and is understood to favor a coalition with the Liberal Republicans.

WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON, one of the earliest, the most persistent, and consistent of American abolitionists, was born at Newburyport, Massachusetts, on the 12th of December, 1804. His mother was a native of the Province of New Brunswick, of English stock, born in the faith of the established church, beautiful, spirited, and gay. At the age of eighteen, she was led by curiosity to attend the meetings of some itinerant Baptists, was converted and became a member of that church. For this her parents closed their hearts and their doors against her, and she was indebted to an uncle for a home until her marriage. She was a woman of marked individuality, earnest convictions, enthusiastic temperament, and possessed a native gift of eloquence in prayer and exhortation, which was frequently exercised in public, as was allowed by the custom of that denomination. His father, Abijah Garrison, was master of a vessel, engaged in the West India trade, and was possessed of considerable literary ability and taste. Unfortunately, however, he became a victim to intemperance; and, under its baneful influence, abandoned his family. His wife, thus left with her children, in utter poverty, adopted the calling of a nurse; and, in 1814, went to Lynn, Massachusetts, and William was placed with Gamaliel Oliver, a Quaker shoemaker of that town, to learn the trade. So small

for his age, was he, that his knees trembled under the weight of the lapstone; and his mother finding, at the end of a few months, that the business would not agree with her boy, sent him back to Newburyport. There he was placed at school, and taught the usual routine of New England district schools, at that time—reading, writing, ciphering, and a little grammar. He lived in the family of Deacon Ezekiel Bartlett; and, as an equivalent for his board, employed himself, when out of school, in assisting the deacon in his occupation of wood-sawyer, going with him from house to house. In 1815, he accompanied his mother to Baltimore, where, after a year spent in the capacity of "chore-boy," he returned to Newburyport. In 1818, he was apprenticed to Moses Short, a cabinet-maker of Haverhill, Massachusetts, but finding the trade very repugnant to his feelings, he finally succeeded in persuading his employer to release him, and in October of the same year, became indentured to Ephraim W. Allen, editor of the "*Newburyport Herald*," to learn the art of printing. He had, at last, found an employment congenial to his tastes, and speedily became expert in the mechanical part of the business. His mind, also, developed into activity; and, when only sixteen or seventeen years of age he began to contribute to the columns of the paper, upon political and other topics—carefully preserving, however, his incognito. On one occasion, the apprentice, who thus had the pleasure of setting his own contributions in type, was the amused and flattered recipient of a letter of thanks from his master, who urged him to continue his communications.

A considerable time elapsed before Mr. Allen became aware that the correspondent, whose communications he so valued and eagerly welcomed, was his own apprentice. The ice once broken, however, young Garrison launched out somewhat more extensively in the literary line, his contributions being accepted,

with much favor, by the "*Salem Gazette*," the "*Haverhill Gazette*," and the "*Boston Commercial Gazette*," especially by the latter, the editor of which, Samuel L. Knapp, was a man of marked culture and good taste. A series of Garrison's articles, published in the "*Salem Gazette*," over the signature of "Aristides," attracted much attention in political circles, and were highly commended by Robert Walsh, then editor of the "*National Gazette*" (Philadelphia), who attributed their authorship to the venerable Timothy Pickering. In 1824, during the somewhat protracted absence of Mr. Allen, the "*Herald*" was edited by Garrison, who, also, superintended its printing. About the same time, his enthusiastic nature became so interested in the cause of the Greeks, then struggling for their freedom, that he was strongly inclined to seek admission to the Military Academy at West Point, with a view of preparing himself for a military career. In 1826, at the close of his apprenticeship, he became proprietor and editor of a journal in his native town, entitled "*The Free Press*;" and toiled arduously, putting his articles in type without committing them to paper. The enterprise, however, proved unsuccessful, and he sought and obtained employment, for awhile, as a journeyman printer, in Boston; where, in 1827, he became the editor of the "*National Philanthropist*," the first journal ever established for the advocacy of the cause of "total abstinence." Before the close of its first year, the journal changed proprietors; and during the next year, 1828, he joined a friend in the publication of "*The Journal of the Times*," at Bennington, Vermont. This journal supported the claims of John Quincy Adams to the presidency, and was devoted in part to the interests of peace, temperance, anti-slavery, and kindred reforms; but it failed of a sufficient support, and was discontinued. During his residence at Bennington, Mr. Garrison's influence, in regard to slavery, was

felt not only in that place, but, also, throughout the entire State, and led to the transmission, to Congress, of an anti-slavery memorial, which was more numerously signed than any similar paper ever before submitted to that tribunal. This subject, indeed, had now fairly enlisted the full interest of Mr. Garrison's mind, and he delivered an address before a religious and philanthropic assembly, held on the 4th of July, 1829, in the Park street church, Boston, which excited general attention by the boldness and vigor of its tones.

His "mission"—as the Germans would say—had found him, and a larger sphere of usefulness was opening before him. During the previous year (1828) he had become acquainted at Boston with one Benjamin Lundy, a Quaker and an abolitionist, who had been publishing, in Baltimore, since 1824, "*The Genius of Universal Emancipation*" (established in 1821), "an anti-slavery paper which was read only by a few people in the city and adjacent country, mostly of his own faith, and which the southern people thought was not of sufficient consequence to be put down." The Baptist and the Quaker met and "struck hands" on this one common ground—their duty to the slave. So, in the autumn of 1829, Garrison went to Baltimore and joined Mr. Lundy in the editorship of the *Genius;* making, in the first number issued under the new auspices, a distinct avowal of the doctrine of immediate emancipation. Mr. Lundy was a gradual emancipationist and a believer in colonization, which Mr. Garrison entirely repudiated; but, as each of them appended his initials to his articles, the difference of opinion interposed no obstacle to a hearty co-operation. But the zeal of the new editor produced an unwonted excitement among the supporters of slavery, while his denunciation of the colonization project aroused an equal amount of hostility among the friends of the paper. "From the moment," says Garrison (in a speech

at Philadelphia, 1863), "that the doctrine of immediate emancipation was enunciated in the columns of the Genius, *as it had not been up to that hour*, it was like a bombshell in the camp of the subscribers themselves; and from every direction letters poured in, that they had not bargained for such a paper as that, or for such doctrines, and they desired to have no more copies sent to them." Lundy seems to have borne patiently with the ruinous "rumpus" which his partner had raised; but an event soon occurred which occasioned a dissolution of the firm. It so happened that the ship Francis, belonging to a Mr. Francis Todd of Newburyport, Massachusetts, came to Baltimore, where she took in a cargo of slaves for the Louisiana market. It roused all the righteous indignation of Mr. Garrison, who denounced it as an act of "domestic piracy," and declared his intention to "cover with thick infamy all who were engaged in the transaction." Baltimore had patiently stood Lundy and his *Genius* for some years, but it could not brook this ferocious attack upon a business which was not only legitimized by use in their city but "by which they had their gain." Garrison was prosecuted for libel, indicted and convicted at the May term (1830) of the city, court, for "a gross and malicious libel" against the owner and master of the vessel, though the Custom House records proved that the number of slaves transported really exceeded the editor's statement. In spite of the able defence of his counsel, Charles Mitchell, who occupied a position at the Baltimore bar second only to that of William Wirt, he was fined fifty dollars and costs of the court. Mr. Todd, in a civil suit, afterward obtained a verdict against him for one thousand dollars—but the judgment, probably on account of his well known poverty, was never enforced. During his imprisonment he was considerately placed in a cell recently vacated by a man who had been hung for murder—but he experienced much

kindness from the jailer and his family—and was visited frequently by Lundy and a few other Quaker friends. The northern press, generally, condemned his imprisonment as unjust, the South Carolina Manumission Society protested against it as an infraction of the liberty of the press, and his letters to the different newspapers, as well as several sonnets which he inscribed upon the walls of his cell, excited considerable attention in various quarters. After a forty-nine days' confinement he was released by the payment of the fine by Mr. Arthur Tappan, a New York merchant, whose generosity anticipated, by a few days, a similar purpose on the part of Henry Clay, whose interest had been awakened by a mutual friend. To Daniel Webster, also, Mr. Garrison was indebted, soon after his release, for sympathy and encouragement.

Freed from his chains, the dauntless champion of the oppressed issued a prospectus for an anti-slavery journal to be published at Washington, and with the design of exciting a deeper and more wide-spread interest in his proposed enterprise, he prepared a course of lectures on slavery, which he delivered in Philadelphia, New York, New Haven, Hartford, and Boston. In Baltimore, he failed to obtain a hearing. In Boston, all efforts to procure a suitable public place for his lectures having failed, he boldly announced, in the daily prints, that if no such place could be obtained within a certain specified time, he would address the people on "The Common." The only hall placed at his disposal was by an association of infidels; and Mr. Garrison accepted the offer, and there delivered his lectures; taking care, however, to distinctly avow his belief in Christianity, as the only power which could break the bonds of the enslaved. These lectures were largely attended, and were instrumental in awakening an increased interest in the subject. His experiences as a lecturer convinced him that

Boston, rather than Washington, was the best location for an anti-slavery paper; and that a revolution of public sentiment at the North must precede emancipation in the South. It was in Boston, accordingly, that he issued (January 1st 1831) the first number of the "*Liberator*," taking for his motto, "my country is the world; my countrymen are all mankind;" and declaring, in the face of an almost universal apathy upon the subject of slavery, "*I am in earnest; I will not equivocate; I will not excuse; I will not retract a single word, and I will be heard.*" And again: "On this question my influence, humble as it is, is felt at this moment to a considerable extent, *and shall be felt in coming years*—not perniciously, but beneficially—not as a curse, but as a blessing; AND POSTERITY WILL BEAR TESTIMONY THAT I WAS RIGHT."

Yet this earnest young man, who so defiantly threw down the gauntlet to the world, was without means, or promise of support from any quarter, and his partner in the proposed enterprise, Mr. Isaac Knapp, was as poor as himself. Fortunately they were both afforded employment in the office of the "*Christian Examiner*," the foreman of which was a warm personal friend of Garrison—and were thus enabled to exchange their labor for the use of the type, Mr. Garrison working laboriously at type-setting all day, and spending the night in his editorial capacity. The initial number was at length issued, and the young men waited anxiously to see what encouragement they should receive. The first cheering return for their labors was the receipt of fifty dollars, with a list of twenty-five subscribers, from James Forten, a wealthy colored citizen of Philadelphia, and they cast aside all doubt as to their future. At the expiration of three weeks they were enabled to open an office for themselves; but, for nearly two years, their very restricted resources obliged them to reside in the office, making

their beds upon the floor, and subsisting upon the plainest and humblest fare. In all sections of the country, both North and South, the "*Liberator*" attracted general attention, finding sympathy in some quarters, while in others it was denounced as fanatical and incendiary. The Hon. Harrison Gray Otis, then mayor of Boston, having been urged, by a southern magistrate, to suppress the journal by law, if possible, wrote in reply that his officers had "ferreted out the paper and its editor, whose office was an obscure hole, his only auxiliary a negro boy, his supporters a very few insignificant persons of all colors." Almost every mail, at this period, brought threats of assassination to Mr. Garrison, if he persisted in publishing his sheet; and in December, 1831, an act was passed by the Legislature of Georgia, offering a reward of $5000 to any one who should arrest, bring to trial, and prosecute to conviction, under the laws of that State, the editor and proprietor of the obnoxious journal. His friends, becoming alarmed for his safety, urged his arming himself for defence; but being a non-resistant he was conscientiously restrained from following their advice.

On the 1st of January, 1832, he, with eleven others, organized "The New England (afterwards the Massachusetts) Anti-Slavery Society," upon the principle of *immediate* emancipation, and this was the parent of the numerous affiliated societies by which, for many years, the anti-slavery question was so persistently kept before the public eye. In the spring of the same year, he published a work, entitled "Thoughts on African Colonization," etc., setting forth, at length, the grounds of his opposition to that scheme. Immediately after (1833), he went to England as an agent of the New England Anti-Slavery Society, for the purpose of securing the co-operation of the people of Great Britain, in measures for the promotion of emancipation in the United States, and as opposed to the colonization

scheme. He was cordially received by Wilberforce, Buxton, and their noble associates; and, as the result of his statements and influence, Wilberforce, and eleven of his most prominent coadjutors, joined in the issue of a protest against the American Colonization Society, whose plans they pronounced delusive, and a hindrance to the abolition of slavery. While in England, through his influence also, Mr. George Thompson, one of the most prominent of the anti-slavery champions in Great Britain, was induced to visit the United States as an anti-slavery lecturer.

Shortly after Mr. Garrison's return to America, "The American Anti-Slavery Society" was formed at Philadelphia, upon the principles advocated by him, and the "Declaration of sentiments" issued by the Society, an elaborate manifesto of its principles, aims and methods, was also prepared by him. Public interest in the subject had, by this time, deepened into excitement, and this, intensified to the highest degree, developed a mobocratic spirit; so that, for two or three years, the assembling of an anti-slavery meeting, almost anywhere in the free States, provoked riotous demonstrations, dangerous alike to property and life. Mr. Thompson (before referred to) arrived here from England, in 1834; but so great was the excitement occasioned by his presence here, that he found it prudent to return across the Atlantic, leaving his promised work unfinished.

In October 1835, a mob, composed of persons who were described in the journals of the day as "gentlemen of property and standing," broke up a meeting of the Female Anti-Slavery Society, at Boston, and Mr. Garrison, who was announced as one of the speakers of the occasion, was seized and, partially denuded of his clothing, was violently dragged through the streets to City Hall; where, as the only means of saving his life, he was committed to jail by the mayor, on the nominal charge of

being "a disturber of the peace!" He was, however, released the next day, and sent, under protection of the civic authorities, to a place of safety in the country, leaving pencilled upon the walls of the cell which he had occupied, the following inscription: "William Lloyd Garrison was put into this cell on Wednesday afternoon, October, 21, 1835, to save him from the violence of a "respectable and influential" mob, who sought to destroy him, for preaching the abominable and dangerous doctrine, that all men are created equal, and that all oppression is odious in the sight of God. Hail, Columbia! cheers for the Autocrat of Russia, and Sultan of Turkey! Reader, let this inscription remain, till the last slave in this land be loosed from his fetters!"

In the discussion of the peace question which followed these scenes of violence, Mr. Garrison took a prominent part as a champion of *non-resistance;* and, in 1838, led the way in the organization of the "New England Non-resistance Society;" the "Declaration of Sentiments" issued by them, being also his work. About this time, also, arose the question of the rights of women as members of the anti-slavery societies, and Mr. Garrison earnestly advocated their right, if they so wished, to vote, serve on committees, and take part in discussions, on equal footing with men. The American Anti-Slavery Society split upon this question, in 1840; and, in the "World's Anti-Slavery Convention," held during the same year in London, Mr. Garrison, as a delegate from that society, refused to take his seat, because the female delegates from the United States were excluded. During this visit to England, he was invited to Stafford House, by the beautiful and distinguished Duchess of Sutherland, who treated him with marked attention, and at whose request he sat to one of the most eminent artists of the day for his portrait, which was added to the treasures of that palace.

In 1843, he was chosen president of the society, which office he continued to hold until 1865.

In 1843, a small volume of his "sonnets and other poems" was published; and, in 1846, he made his third visit, on anti-slavery business, to Great Britain. In 1852, appeared a volume of "selections," from his "writings and speeches."

Mr. Garrison has, from the first, kept himself, as an abolitionist, free from all political or religious complications, or affinities. Believing most thoroughly, as expressed in the motto of the *Liberator*, that the Constitution of the United States, in its relations to slavery, was "a covenant with death and an agreement with hell," he has acted with singular and unwavering consistency. It has been well said,* that "while everybody else in the United States had something else to conserve, some side issues to make, some points to carry, *Garrison and his band had but one thing to say*—that American slavery is a sin; *but one thing to do*—to preach immediate repentance, and forsaking of sin. They withdrew from every organization which could in any way be supposed to tolerate or hold communion with it, and walked alone, a small, but always active and powerful body. They represented the pure abstract form of every principle as near as it is possible for it to be represented by human frailty."

In 1861, when the war of the rebellion broke out, Mr. Garrison did not for a moment hesitate to throw the whole weight of his intellectual and moral support in favor of the Government, contrary to the course of many of his fellow abolitionists, and of many of the so-called peace-men, who thought that because they could not take up arms in defence of any cause, they could neither acknowledge the constitutional right of the North to enforce obedience to the laws, and sup-

* By Mrs. Stowe, in the *Watchman and Reflector*, May 24th, 1866.

press rebellion, nor rejoice in any of its victories. From the very first, Mr. Garrison rejoiced in every triumph of the Federal arms, as a patriot and a philanthropist; and he foresaw the inevitable disruption of slavery, as he had never expected to see it. In all his criticisms upon the course of the administration, he remembered its grave responsibilities, and placed great faith in the personal integrity of President Lincoln. In April, 1865, at the invitation of Secretary Stanton, he visited Fort Sumter, to attend the celebration of its recapture, and went up also, to Charleston, where he addressed a great gathering of the freedmen, who attended him with flowers on his departure. In May, 1865, at the anniversary meeting, in New York, of the American Anti-Slavery Society, of which he was president,—after vainly trying to persuade his associates to disband, on the ground that, slavery being abolished, the society became a misnomer, and ceased to have a reason for existing, while for any service yet to be performed for the freedmen, it was far better to work in unison with the great body of loyalists all over the North, than to continue in their hitherto enforced isolation,—he resigned his office, and withdrew from the society.

Partly on the same ground, and partly because the paper had never received adequate support, he discontinued the publication of the "*Liberator*," in December 1865, at the close of its thirty-fifth volume.

He was chosen one of the vice-presidents of the American Freedman's Union Commission; and in May, 1867, his health having been impaired by a serious fall, he made a fourth visit to England, and first visit to the Continent, to join his son and married daughter. In London he was complimented with a banquet by some of the most distinguished men of the kingdom, including John Bright, John Stuart Mill, the Duke of Argyll

and Earl Russell, the latter of whom made a handsome apology for his mistaken utterances during our civil war. At various other places in England and Scotland he was publicly entertained in a similar manner for his connection with the anti-slavery cause, and also with the temperance cause, in America; and, at Edinburgh, the freedom of the city was presented to him by the Lord Provost, an honor never before bestowed upon an American, except Mr. Peabody. At Paris he attended and addressed a World's Anti-Slavery Conference, and returned to America in November, 1867, since which he has resided in Boston. During the same year, also, Mr. Garrison's inestimable services to the cause of humanity were gracefully and heartily acknowledged in the form of a testimonial, amounting to about $33,000, raised from the nation at large, by public and private appeals, and presented to him in a strictly private manner.

The letter of the committee who presented this testimonial, contains a grateful tribute to the unflagging zeal of Mr. Garrison in the cause of freedom, and assures him of the truly national character of the testimonial, coming from every quarter of the country, and from all classes of people. Mr. Garrison, in his reply, writes as follows:—"Little, indeed, did I know or anticipate how prolonged, or how virulent would be the struggle when I lifted up the standard of immediate emancipation, and essayed to rouse the nation to a sense of its guilt and danger. But, having put my hand to the plow, how could I look back? For, in a cause so righteous, I could not doubt that, having turned the furrows, if I sowed it in tears, I should one day reap in joy. But, whether permitted to live to witness the abolition of slavery or not, I felt assured that, as I demanded nothing that was not clearly in accordance with justice and

humanity, some time or other, if remembered at all, I should stand vindicated in the eyes of my countrymen."

In connection with this, we may quote a few paragraphs from a recent letter of this whole-souled pioneer of emancipation: "I thank you," says he to an old and valued friend, "for the warm and generous approval of my anti-slavery career, and rejoice with you in the total abolition of slavery, throughout our land. If, as a humble instrumentality, in effecting the overthrow of that nefarious system, I have been prominent, it has not been of my seeking; for, at the outset, I expected to follow others, not to lead; and certainly, I neither sought nor desired conspicuity. Standing for a time alone under the banner of immediate and unconditional emancipation, I naturally excited the special enmity and wrath of the whole country, as the 'head and front' of abolition offending; and now that the cause, once so odious, is victorious, and four millions of bondmen have had their fetters broken; it is not very surprising that, in this 'era of good feeling,' my labors and merits are immensely overrated. Others have labored more abundantly, encountered more perils, and endured more privations and sufferings; but every one has been indispensable, in his own place, to bring about the good and glorious result; and it is not a question of comparison as to who was earliest in the field, or who labored the most efficiently, but one of sympathy for the oppressed, and an earnest desire to see their yoke immediately broken. There should be no boasting on the one hand, nor jealousy on the other. Therefore, while disclaiming any peculiar deserts on my part, I think the 'testimonial,' which has been so unexpectedly raised in approval of my anti-slavery career, will not be viewed by any of my co-laborers as invidious, but rather as symbolizing a common triumph, and a common vindication."

WENDELL PHILLIPS.

SOME writer has said, that "oratory is a peculiarly American gift—not that there have not been elsewhere eloquent speakers, who could sway senates at their will—but, in America, public speaking is so universal, and the masses are so intelligent, that the inducements to cultivate an art, which will enable the speaker to control the listening crowds, are much stronger than in other countries." It is undoubtedly true that there are more examples of brilliant eloquence in the pulpit, at the bar, and on the platform before public assemblies, here than in any other country where the English tongue is spoken; and, though our composite language may not possess the stateliness of the Castilian, the liquid music of the Italian, or the colloquial brilliancy of the French, there are extant orations in it, which are surpassed in beauty and grandeur by those of no other living tongue.

There is a tendency among our orators to verbal diffuseness; their speeches lack condensation, and hence, though they sound well, when delivered *ore rotundo*, they do not read so well. We miss the vigor, pith, and points which were, in part, supplied by the earnestness of the speaker's delivery. He is, all things considered, the most effective orator, who, with all the graces of manner, voice, and action, utters an address whose every word has been carefully selected, and conveys just the shade of

meaning intended, neither less nor more, and, at the same time, so combines his words and sentences as to produce the best effect of which the language is capable. It is just the power of fully accomplishing this, which makes Mr. Phillips *the finest orator in Christendom*. His position, in this respect, is conceded alike by friends and foes.

Some have doubted whether eloquence was a natural or an acquired endowment, and those who inclined to the latter view have adduced the long and painful efforts of Demosthenes; and, in our own time, of Henry Ward Beecher, to overcome natural difficulties of delivery. We cannot doubt that these men, and many others, have triumphed over great obstacles, in attaining a ready and effective utterance of the great thoughts which were seeking deliverance from the prison-house of the brain; but the eloquence was behind all these obstacles, and it would have vent. It was the gift of God, and however it might be obscured at first, by imperfection of voice, by a faltering and hesitating tongue, or other impediments of speech, it was there, and must eventually force its way out. Happy those who, like Mr. Phillips, possess naturally all these graces of delivery, and who owe little to the help of art. Mr. Phillips' first public oration, delivered *impromptu*, possesses all the fine characteristics of his later ones, was delivered with as much fervor and with as powerful an effect as any of the thousands since, which have held listening crowds in speechless delight. There was the same careful and apparently instinctive choice of the best words to express his thoughts, the same keen and polished invective, the same system and order in his arrangement, and the same fervid and brilliant peroration. If he has never improved on that eloquent address, delivered now nearly thirty-five years ago, it is because that it was so perfect a production as to leave no room for improvement.

WENDELL PHILLIPS comes of the best blood of the Puritan and revolutionary stock. A lineal descendant of Rev. George Phillips, an eminent clergyman and scholar, who emigrated to Massachusetts from Norfolk county, England, in 1630, and served as the learned, wise, and zealous pastor of Watertown, Massachusetts, for fourteen years, he numbers, also, among his ancestry, direct or collateral, Samuel Phillips, Jr., Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts in 1801–2, and founder of Phillips' academy, Andover; John Phillips, LL.D., the founder and liberal contributor to Phillips' academy, Exeter, New Hampshire, Dartmouth college, Phillips' academy, Andover, and Andover Theological seminary; his honor, William Phillips, Jr., of Boston, also a Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts, and his father, Hon. John Phillips, who was the first mayor of Boston. Wendell Phillips was born in Boston, November 29, 1811, and after enjoying the advantages of the best schools of his native city, entered Harvard college, where he graduated with high honors, in 1831, and commencing the study of law in the Cambridge law school, received his diploma there in 1833, and was admitted to the Suffolk bar in 1834.

An accomplished scholar, with a far wider range of general culture than is ordinarily possessed by educated young men at the age of twenty-four, and with an intense fastidiousness of taste and thought, which ever made absolute perfection its ideal, Mr. Phillips was in danger, at this time, of becoming a mere purist, a dilettante, frittering away his noble powers on the spelling of a word, or shades of thought too nice to be distinguished by any common mind, or in some other equally profitless pursuit, which should squander, rather than exercise his great gifts. But he was happily diverted to more profitable and useful labors, by the great events which occurred, just as he came into public life.

It was the era of the first great anti-slavery excitement. The whole country was in arms at the behest of the slave power, which demanded the putting down of the men who had dared to question its authority. For his attacks on this monster iniquity, William Lloyd Garrison, as we have already seen, was first assailed with the most bitter and abusive language, and afterwards dragged through the streets of Boston by a mob, for his advocacy of the cause of freedom. The people of the North, with but few exceptions, were wedded to the idol of slavery, and were indignant that any man should dare to offend the South, by whose trade they had their gain.

Phillips had witnessed the indignities offered to Garrison, and his cruel persecution for his bold defence of freedom against oppression; and the old patriotic, freedom-loving blood which had made the Phillipses among the foremost of the patriots of the Revolution, was stirred within him. He avowed himself an abolitionist and co-worker with Garrison in 1836, and in 1839 withdrew from the practice of law because he could not conscientiously take the oath to support and defend the Constitution of the United States, believing, as he did, that that document was tainted with complicity with slavery, and hence, as he forcibly expressed it, was "a covenant with death and an agreement with hell."

He threw himself into the front of the battle against slavery, and for thirty years and more has fought oppression; at first with a little but gallant band, abused, hated, threatened, a price set on his head, and the object of all the obloquy and scorn men could visit on him. After years of this strife, in which he and Mr. Garrison were always the standard bearers, there began to be signs of coming success for their principles; then Phillips always took a long stride forward, and fought on, waiting for the masses to advance. His mind is so constituted that so long as

there is a possible good to be obtained, an ideal, however vague and shadowy, to be reached, he cannot rest, and if the whole world were to advance to his ideal of to-day, he would be found far beyond in the distance, with aims and hopes and ends yet to be attained.

With how much of suffering and anxiety he has maintained this long struggle, none but himself can ever know. He put aside for it a brilliant future in his profession, and made opposition to slavery the great business of his life. Yet such was his winning eloquence, his vast learning, and his brilliant and versatile powers as a lecturer, that when he could be induced to lecture on any other subject, he drew larger audiences than any other man. He knew the unpopularity of his favorite topic. and shrewdly availed himself of his great abilities to secure for it a hearing. For years, when the lecture committees applied to him to address audiences and asked his terms, his reply was: "If I speak on slavery, nothing: if on any other subject, one hundred dollars."

His first noteworthy speech on slavery was unpremeditated, but its thrilling eloquence told on the audience, nine-tenths of whom were bitterly opposed to him. The occasion was this. In the autumn of 1837, Rev. E. P. Lovejoy had been murdered at Alton, Illinois, and his press broken up, by a mob, mostly from Missouri, on account of the anti-slavery principles he had avowed in his paper. A meeting was called in Boston, by Rev. W. E. Channing and others, to assemble in Faneuil Hall (the use of which was at first denied but finally reluctantly granted), to notice in a suitable manner Mr. Lovejoy's death as a martyr to freedom. After some addresses, a Mr. Austin, attorney-general of Massachusetts, rose and defended, in a very bitter and violent speech, the rioters, declared that Lovejoy came to his death by his own imprudence, and that the utterance of such

sentiments as he had avowed, ought to be suppressed. Mr. Phillips replied in one of the most eloquent and scathing speeches ever delivered, running a parallel between the conduct of Warren at Bunker Hill, and Lovejoy at Alton, so effective, that the audience, who had, at first, been determined that he should not be permitted to speak, at last greeted him with cheers.

Mr. Phillips was most thoroughly in his element at the anniversaries of the American Anti-Slavery Society, when, from year to year, he would review the progress made, and hail upon the pro-slavery leaders and partisans such a storm of invective, every sentence polished but keen as a battle axe, that those of them who were present would writhe under it, as if in intense agony. Year after year, such men as Isaiah Rynders and his comrades, would attempt to break up these anniversaries by mob-violence, and often was Mr. Phillips' life threatened; but he could not be put down. There was that power and dignity in his manner, which would quell and silence the fiercest mob; and when they were hushed, he would take the opportunity to say his severest and bitterest words.

No man living excels him in power over an audience. The writer once listened to his lecture on Toussaint L'Ouverture, and was surprised to see a man in the audience well known as a Democrat and a strongly pro-slavery partisan, applauding him to the echo, and most vigorously in those passages which were most intensely anti-slavery, and most decided in their depreciation of the white general (Napoleon), as compared with the negro (Toussaint).

At the close of the lecture, falling in with this Democrat, the writer could not avoid saying to him, "How happens it that you, an intense pro-slavery man, should applaud and enjoy the hard hits and telling blows of Wendell Phillips against slavery?" "Oh!" was the reply, "of course I don't believe a

word he says, but he did say it so well and so neatly, that I couldn't help applauding." Nothing but genuine eloquence of the highest character could have produced such an effect as that.

When Mr. Delane, of the *London Times*, was in this country, a friend asked him to go with him and hear Wendell Phillips; he declined at first, saying that he had no wish to listen to a foaming abolition lecture; but at the urgent request of his friend finally consented. The lecture closed, his friend, who had watched his countenance during the lecture, asked how he was pleased. "Pleased!" answered the editor, "I never heard any thing like it; we have no orator in England who can compare with him. He is the most eloquent speaker living."

Mr. Phillips has not expended all his force on opposition to slavery; temperance, peace, the rights of woman, and other measures of reform, have ever found in him a ready, powerful, and eloquent advocate. His devotion to woman partakes much of the lofty character of the best days of chivalry, and leads one inevitably to the conviction that his own wife must have very nearly filled his exalted ideal of the true woman.

The few review articles from the pen of Mr. Phillips on other than reform topics, his published volume of orations, and the lectures on scientific subjects which he had delivered (the lecture on "The Lost Arts" has been repeated, it is said, many hundreds of times), indicate the breadth of his scholarship, and the great loss which science and literature have sustained, in relinquishing him to become the Apostle of Reform.

Since the war, Mr. Phillips has not, as Mr. Garrison did so gracefully, accepted the verdict of the people that his work was accomplished, and that henceforth he might peacefully enjoy the victories which his good sword had won. A little younger than his friend Garrison, he has more of the Ironsides blood in

him than he, and he prefers to fight on, though it be with invisible foes, or even with windmills, like the chivalric Don Quixote.

His ideal man is placed on a higher level than ever before, and his long continued use of invective has made him soured and bitter toward all men who do not fully come up to it. He is a man who will always do best to head a forlorn hope, always win the greatest triumphs when in a minority. Indeed it is impossible for him to be anywhere else. The atmosphere of a majority, in agreement with him, oppresses him as an enclosed house does a Rocky Mountain trapper. He cannot breathe in it.

Though affiliated by all his past labors and the convictions of many years with the Republican party, he persistently refuses to work with it; now denouncing its candidates with the utmost bitterness, and anon accepting a nomination, without the slightest hope of success, for Governor, from the Labor-Reform party; an apostle of temperance for five and thirty years, he accepts the support of the Anti-Prohibitory Liquor Law men in Massachusetts, to shatter and rend the party there from whom he has received all his honors and applause; and after thus seeking its disruption, turns about and berates it furiously for not doing as he desired. But these vagaries are, after all, but spots on the sun; we could wish them away, or at all events less conspicuous; we could wish our peerless orator more practical and more tractable; but we cannot forget his brave deeds when he stood almost alone against the world; we cannot cease to remember that he was in those days always in the forefront of the hottest battle; and though some of the hard blows he then received have made the veteran a little crusty, yet we can well afford to bear with him for the good he has done in the past.

In private life Mr. Phillips bears the reputation of being one of the most genial and lovable of men, and in all the social relations of family and friends, his presence adds new zest to society, and gives increased pleasure to the circles which are favored with it.

GERRIT SMITH.

WERE we called upon to point out a man whose whole course of life had been controlled, both in public and private, by the conscientious desire to obey the great law of love, "whatsoever things ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them," we should have no hesitation in selecting Gerrit Smith as that man.

He may have erred in judgment at times; his measures for accomplishing good may have failed, in some instances, either from their own imperfection, or the weakness, stupidity or unworthiness of those whom he has sought to benefit; he may, in his anxieties to benefit his fellow-man, have been led into erroneous and dangerous views of the plans, purposes, and revelation of Him, whom yet, in his heart of hearts, we believe he reverently worships; but of his earnest desire to do his whole duty to his fellow-man there can be no question.

GERRIT SMITH was born in Utica, New York, March 6th, 1797. His father, Hon. Peter Smith, was known in the early part of the present century as one of the largest land-holders in the United States. At his death his great fortune was divided mainly between his two sons, Peter Sken Smith and Gerrit Smith, the former receiving the larger share of the personal, and the latter the greater part of the real estate.

Gerrit Smith was graduated at Hamilton college, Clinton,

New York, in 1818. He never entered himself as a student of law, but was admitted to practice in the State and Federal courts of New York in 1853, and has participated in several important trials.

His philanthropic disposition led him at an early age to take an active part in the benevolent enterprises of the day. In 1825, he connected himself with the American Colonization Society, in the hope that it would facilitate the emancipation of the slaves. He contributed largely to its funds, but finally becoming satisfied that it was not the intention of its founders or directors to promote general emancipation, he withdrew from it in 1835, and has been ever since identified, heart and soul, with the voting portion of the anti-slavery party.

Gifted with a simple and natural eloquence, very effective with the masses, he has plead the cause of the slave for thirty years past with great earnestness, and a confiding faith in the eventual triumph of the principles of emancipation; and that his faith might not be unsustained by works, he has given, with a princely liberality, to every effort for the promotion of the abolition of slavery.

It is a characteristic of Mr. Smith's mind that he must push his views of philanthropy to their ultimate logical conclusions, and he cannot rest in any thing short of these. Thus holding that slavery was wrong, and that no man had a right to enjoy the rewards of the enforced labor of another, he came to the farther conclusion, that it was wrong to purchase or use any thing produced by the labor of the slave, and hence he refused to wear or use any article made of cotton, unless he could be satisfied that it was free labor cotton, any sugar except that produced by free labor, any rice except that grown in India or China.

But his philanthropy was not confined to the slave; the

victim of intemperance was equally an object of his sympathy and commiseration, and his own eloquence, and his means, were freely expended in the endeavor to restrain or prohibit the sale of intoxicating drinks. He was strongly opposed to the use of tobacco, and aided in the publication and circulation of tracts to dissuade people from its use. He believed woman oppressed by the laws, and exerted himself to have them changed so as to better her condition. He aided in prison reformation and the establishment of juvenile reformatories; and when the news of the attempts to fasten slavery upon Kansas came to his ears, though in general a peace-man and non-resistant, he contributed largely for the purchase of Sharp's rifles, and for the outfit and forwarding of large bodies of sturdy northern settlers to that territory. Though by inheritance and purchase from his fellow-heirs, one of the largest land-holders in the United States, he had convinced himself of the wrongfulness of land monopoly, and practically illustrated his views, by distributing two hundred thousand acres of land, partly among institutions of learning, but mostly among the poor white and black men, to whom he allotted, in tracts of about fifty acres, one hundred and twenty thousand acres of land, accompanying the deed in many instances with a sum of money sufficient to enable them to erect a cabin, and procure a little stock.

Some of his colonists did well; but many, a majority, we fear, proved unworthy of his kindness, and after receiving his bounty, abandoned their lands, and reviled him because he would not support them in idleness.

It was in connection with these gifts of land, that he first became acquainted with John Brown, afterward of Kansas. Mr. Brown was of great service to him in the care and instruction of his colored colonists, and some of them, under his influence, did well. In the Kansas troubles, Mr. Smith put

money into Brown's hands frequently, to distribute among the poor in that territory. Brown visited him a few months before his Harper's Ferry raid, but did not communicate to him his plans.

In 1852, Mr. Smith was elected to Congress from the twenty-second Congressional district of New York, but resigned at the close of the first or long session, on account of the pressure of his private affairs, and his extreme disrelish for public life. After the John Brown raid, in 1859, an attempt was made by Virginians, and other pro-slavery leaders, to identify him and other prominent anti-slavery men at the North with the movement, and to demonstrate that it was an extensive conspiracy against the South. The charge was absolutely false; but Mr. Smith being at the time in very feeble health, and being excited by the virulent attacks made upon him, became for a short time insane. He speedily, however, recovered his reason, with the improvement of his general health. In 1861, he entered with great spirit and patriotism into the efforts for raising regiments and sustaining the Government in a vigorous prosecution of the war. He addressed a number of large gatherings on this subject, and, as usual, gave liberally for it.

The war over, he inclined to the policy of extreme mercy to the South, and in May, 1867, at the request of one of Mr. Jefferson Davis's counsel, became one of the signers of his bail-bond, qualifying in the sum of five thousand dollars for his appearance. His course in the matter, like that of Mr. Greeley, occasioned considerable animadversion, but both gentlemen defended themselves by published letters, to the best of their ability.

For several years past, Mr. Smith has advocated, both by published speeches, and public essays and appeals, a larger liberty of opinion, and freedom from what he believed the

bondage of sect. These views, which at first took only the form of a protest against denominationalism, have gradually, from his habit of pushing his speculations to their ultimate conclusions, developed into a modified deism, rejecting many of the cardinal doctrines of the Christian faith, and assailing, with great vehemence, the Christian church, and to some extent, the Scriptures. In this crusade he has made very few converts, and in common with most of his friends, we believe his errors to be rather of the head than the heart.

Under his abundant, almost lavish giving, Mr. Smith's princely estate has diminished till he is now comparatively poor. Yet his generous nature remains, and we doubt not he suffers more than the applicant for his bounty, when he is obliged to deny or diminish the amount of his beneficence.

Mr. Smith published a volume of his "Speeches in Congress," in 1856; a volume entitled "Sermons and Speeches by Gerrit Smith," in 1861; and numberless pamphlets and broad sheets. His latest pamphlets are, "The Theologies," 1866; "Nature's Theology," 1867; "A Letter from Gerrit Smith to Albert Barnes," 1868; and several other pamphlets, mostly political, in 1870–72. He has taken very decided ground in favor of President Grant's reëlection, and against his old friend Greeley, in the spring and summer of 1872.

REV. HENRY WARD BEECHER.

WE hazard little in saying that there is no living man in America whose name is more widely known than that of the Plymouth pastor. Other clergymen, other public lecturers, other authors, other reformers (for he is equally popular in all these capacities), may have a wide spread local reputation; they may be quite well known in one section or another of the country, and their names may have some currency in all sections, but from the inhabitant of the remotest province of the Dominion of Canada on the northeast, to the Rio Grande in the southeast, from Alaska to the Capes of Florida, there is no man of ordinary intelligence, black or white, who does not know something of Henry Ward Beecher.

Yet this man has held no civil office, or been a candidate for any; he has commanded no armies, fought no battles with carnal weapons; he is not a millionaire, nor has he ever possessed the fortune to endow or establish a college, a hospital, a seminary, or an asylum. He is eloquent, but he has not the musical voice, nor does he utter the polished periods of Phillips, or the grand and stately sentences of Sumner; he is brave and fearless, but pluck is not so rare an attribute in American character, as to make its possessor an object of such universal note.

Yet it is certain that he possesses qualities and talents which have made him, in some respects, the foremost man, and the finest representative of the best traits of American character our country has yet produced.

For twenty-five years, he has drawn to the plain church edifice in which he preaches, in winter and summer, in spring and autumn, a constant congregation of from twenty-five hundred to three thousand persons, in fair weather and foul, and very often hundreds more have endeavored in vain to get within the sound of his voice. Among his audiences, are men from every State in the Union, some of them renting sittings for the year, to secure seats during the month or two they may be in New York. The annual rental of the pews of this church brings in a revenue of from $50,000 to $60,000, and has steadily increased from year to year.

No such audience could have been maintained for a fourth of that period by any clap-trap or artifice on the part of the preacher; certainly not in a community as intelligent as that of Brooklyn.

But the delivering of three discourses a week, of such wonderful freshness, originality, and eloquence, that when reported for the press, as they have been regularly, they have secured hundreds of thousands of readers (and during the whole period of twenty-one years, he has never repeated a sermon, so affluent is his imagination, and so abundant his mental resources), and the pastoral care of a church now numbering about two thousand members, have by no means exhausted the extraordinary vitality of this remarkable man. During a period of ten or twelve years, he was a constant contributor to the *Independent* newspaper, his articles being signed with an asterisk, and was generally, but erroneously supposed to be the editor of the paper. From 1861 to 1863, he was its editor-in-

chief, and wrote such vigorous stirring leaders, as are seldom found anywhere, and after withdrawing from that paper he was a constant contributor to others, and since 1869 has been the brilliant editor of the *Christian Union*, now the most widely circulated religious paper in the world.

For the whole twenty-five years he has been an able and prominent leader in most of the measures of reform, addressing audiences all over the country at least thirty or forty times in the course of the year, on Anti-Slavery and Republican topics, Temperance, the Reformation of Morals, Juvenile Reform, etc., and until the past two or three years delivered about fifty lyceum lectures a year, from Maine to Minnesota. As the best extemporaneous platform speaker in America, he has always been in demand on all anniversary occasions, and never failed to acquit himself with credit. He has found time to prepare several books of his own, and to revise volumes of his sermons, selected passages from his discourses, etc., which others have compiled. Within the past year and a half he has written and published, first as a newspaper serial, and afterwards as a volume, a novel of New England life, and is now engaged upon a "Life of Christ," of which the first volume has recently appeared. In the abundance of these avocations, and the immense correspondence which they necessitate, he finds leisure for the cultivation of his artistic tastes, and his intense love of the beautiful, both in nature and art. He ranks very high as a connoisseur in all art matters. His house is filled with choice pictures; his large library contains the best works on art, many of them with costly illustrations; and both in Brooklyn and at his Peekskill farm, where he spends much of his time during the later summer and early autumn, he has a great profusion of flowers.

Let us turn now to the life history of this man, so wonderful for his genius, the versatility of his talents and his untiring

industry, and see if, by so doing, we can obtain any insight into the sources of his great powers.

The Beecher family is one of extraordinary gifts and intellectual power. They trace their ancestry to John Beecher, who came over to New England with Davenport in 1636, and settled, with his mother, in New Haven. His descendants seem to have been favored in their choice of wives, and some of the best Scotch and Welsh blood in the nation has mingled with the powerful *physique* of the English stock, to produce a combination of remarkable vitality and intellectual energy. Rev. Lyman Beecher, D. D., the father of Henry Ward, was one of the most remarkable men of the last generation. It was said of him that he was the father of more brains than any other man in America," and the remark was undoubtedly true. Of his thirteen children eleven grew up to adult age, and all his seven sons became clergymen, and most of them were distinguished for intellectual ability, while of the four daughters, two, Miss Catharine E. Beecher, and Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, have won a world-wide reputation, the former by her able works on education, physiological, social, intellectual and domestic; the latter by her brilliant fictions, which have achieved a greater success than was ever accorded to those of any other writer. Dr. Lyman Beecher was brought up on a farm, but entered Yale college in 1793, and graduated in 1797, with a fair standing. He was a vigorous original thinker, and after he entered the ministry soon attained a high reputation for the keenness of his dialectic powers, and the energy and fire which he threw into his public and private teachings. He was eloquent, wonderfully so, after his fashion, and his powerful denunciations of intemperance, and of the Unitarian dogmas, have never been surpassed in vividness or point. He wrote, too, on controversial subjects, with decided

ability, and his written productions were remarkable for finish and purity of style. He was successively pastor of a Presbyterian church at Easthampton, Long Island, a Congregational church at Litchfield, Connecticut, and the Hanover Square (afterwards Bowdoin street) Congregational church, Boston. In 1832, at the age of nearly fifty-seven, he was called to the presidency of the Lane Theological seminary, near Cincinnati, Ohio, where he remained till 1851, when he returned to Boston, and in 1856 to Brooklyn, where his last years were spent. He was thrice married. His first wife, the mother of Henry Ward Beecher, was a Miss Roxana Foote of Guilford, Connecticut, a woman of remarkable intellectual powers, great personal attractions, and a most gentle, lovely, and engaging temper. The subject of our sketch inherits, from his father, his abundant vitality, his intellectual vigor and earnestness, his overflowing humor, and his power to move and thrill the masses; and from his mother, his artistic tastes, his fondness for nature, his intuitions toward the beautiful, and that delicacy, tact, refinement and amiability, which have made him so widely popular.

Henry Ward Beecher was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, June 24, 1813. The first thirteen years of his life were passed in this quiet rural village, which had then a circle of intellectual, cultivated men and women, such as are not often found in much larger towns. When he was but little more than three years of age, he lost his mother, a great loss for a sensitive, affectionate, and thoughtful child; but one made up, in part, by the influence of the gifted and accomplished woman, who, some fourteen months later, took her place as the wife of Dr. Beecher. It is indicative of his thoughtfulness and affection, young as he was, at the time of his mother's death, that having heard that she was to be buried in the ground, and again that she had gone to heaven, he commenced digging very earnestly under the

window of her room, and could hardly be persuaded to desist, saying that "he wanted to dig down and get to heaven, where his mamma was."

As he grew older, he was a healthy, robust boy, active in all outdoor sports and exercises, a little clumsy perhaps, but affectionate and loving. He gave at this time but little promise of his subsequent intellectual power; his voice was husky and thick, and he spoke so indistinctly that it was a cause of anxiety to his family; he was shy, and had the misfortune of losing his memory, or rather becoming confused, from shyness, when called on to repeat what he had learned. In one of those interesting reminiscences of his childhood, in which he is prone to indulge in his lecture-room talks, he tells us that he was at times very unhappy in childhood, from the difficulty he found in obtaining from any body any clear explanations of the great ethical and theological questions which haunted his soul. He had been brought up under a very rigid, Calvinistic training, and the dogmas of that creed puzzled and distressed him, and any efforts which were made to explain them, only confused him the more. In the end, however, this exercise of the mind with great, though but partially understood thoughts, may have been a benefit, for it made him more anxious, in his own ministry, to use the utmost clearness and simplicity in explaining these truths to the young, the simple and the ignorant. On his father's removal to Boston, he found himself in a new sphere. He was sent to the Boston Latin school, but the impatience of what seemed to him unmeaning forms, and the deficiency of his verbal memory, made the formal training there inexpressibly irksome to him. The wharves, and the ships, with their precious cargoes from the far orient, which lay beside them, roused his passion for the sea, and boylike, he resolved to become a sailor. His father somehow ascertained his restless craving, and like a

skilful tactician, did not discourage it, but turned it into a better channel. He was sent to the Mount Pleasant school, at Amherst, Massachusetts, to study mathematics and other branches, to qualify himself, should he subsequently desire it, to enter the navy. Here, he fell under the care of excellent and skilful teachers, who roused his interest and ambition in mathematical studies; by careful and protracted training greatly improved his elocution, and gave him that impulse to study which made him a really brilliant student. Physiological studies, and indeed those appertaining to physical science generally, had a strong attraction for him, and the charming illustrations drawn from nature and natural scenery which have begemmed so many of his discourses and lectures, have been among the results of these favorite pursuits.

Though decidedly a religious man in his college course (for he entered Amherst college in 1830) the superabundance of the humorous element in his nature, made him something of a wag, never given to malicious or practical jokes, but brimfull and running over with fun; and those who know him now, do not need to be assured that he did not leave all his humorous propensities behind him at Amherst. Yet this gay, joyous temper, was but the sparkle and foam at the surface; below it there were depths of earnest tenderness, which demonstrated the truth of the old epigram, that "tears are akin to laughter."

His thorough previous training had given him more than the usual time for general reading and culture, and apart from his physiological and phrenological researches, he read largely of the works of the great divines and authors of the seventeenth century, and thus imbibed that intense love for the vigorous Saxon of that period, which has been one of the many elements of his great success as a preacher. The taste thus formed has been since sedulously cultivated, and it would surprise a person

whose attention had not previously been called to it, to note how very few words, not of direct Saxon origin, are to be found in his sermons. He has, indeed, been charged with making an unwarrantable use of the sermons of the old divines, but the charge is as absurd as it would be to accuse him of borrowing from Webster's dictionary. He has borrowed their quaint modes of thought, at times, but that was inevitable in the effort to express the ideas of our time, in the garb of Saxon undefiled which they used and delighted in. Beyond this there has been no plagiarism on his part.

His college course was not completed till 1834, two years after his father had accepted the presidency of Lane seminary, and thither he went to pursue his theological studies, and to find his father in the fore-front of the fierce battle, then waging between the old and new school parties in the Presbyterian church. Under such circumstances, his theological training was likely to be dialectic, rather than practical; but it was not in the power of even his father's great influence to make him a controversialist. He reverenced his father, and, as in duty bound, took up arms in his defence, but his own theology was of a more peaceful, even if a less logical character, and though in the battle, he was not of it. His theological course completed, he married, and was ordained as pastor of a Presbyterian church in Lawrenceburg, Indiana. His fine descriptive powers, and the intensely sympathetic character of his preaching, led to his transference, two years later (in 1839), to the pastorate of the First Presbyterian church in Indianapolis. Here a wide door opened before him. He had not been long a resident of the capital of the State, before his church was thronged with crowds, eager to hear the young preacher, whose vivid word painting and power, in presenting Christ in his relations to humanity in all the forms of joy and sorrow, was something so

new and impressive. He delivered a course of lectures to young men while in Indianapolis, which were published, and had an immense sale, which has continued to the present day. Even thus early, his tendency to combine, with his pastoral duties, labors not usually regarded as clerical, began to manifest itself. For a few months before his ordination, he had edited the organ of the Presbyterian church, at Cincinnati, in the absence of its responsible editor; but at Indianapolis, in addition to his other duties, he undertook the editorship of an agricultural paper, and discussed, learnedly and interestingly too, the rotation of crops, manures, the best methods of cultivation, breeds of cattle, horses and swine, and other topics which most interest the farmer. He could not avoid, however, having a department for floriculture, and in that he poured out the wealth of his love of nature. The paper was popular, and reached a large circulation for a paper of that class.

Meantime his reputation as a preacher was growing also. Eastern men, making a tour of the West, were attracted by the fame of the young Indianapolis pastor, went to hear him from curiosity, and were delighted. Some of these men being about to establish a new Congregational church in Brooklyn, New York, resolved to make the effort to obtain him for their pastor.

Their call was, after some hesitation, accepted, and in the autumn of 1847, he entered upon his labors with this new church in Brooklyn, to which the name of Plymouth church had been given. They met at first, and till their church edifice was erected, in a rude, plain, but capacious "tabernacle;" and this was at once filled to overflowing. It very soon became the fashion to "go and hear Beecher;" and those who went once, were very sure to come again. The boyish-looking pastor (for though thirty-four years old when he removed to Brooklyn, he had a very youthful appearance), with his easy,

careless ways, had a faculty, when the inspiration was on him, of winning all hearts, now creating a smile by the aptness and homeliness of some illustration, or by the slight touch of humor which he could not wholly suppress, and anon melting them to tears by his deep pathos, and his vivid portrayal of the Divine love. When the church edifice was completed, that too was soon filled, nay, crammed, with eager listeners. People said that it would not last; that as soon as the excitement was over, his congregation would dwindle till it was no larger than that of other pastors: but it has kept up to its first standard, or rather increased, for twenty-five years. Repeated attempts have been made by other denominations to find a man who would draw to their churches such a body of worshippers, but in vain.

Meantime, Mr. Beecher never seemed elated by his success; he knew, of course, as every strong man does, his power, but it did not make him vain. His church grew in numbers, and has been, for years past the largest evangelical church in the Northern States, if not in the country. In the Sunday-school, in the mission-schools, and in its ample support of all noble and good enterprises, Plymouth church has been worthy of its pastor. When he was installed as pastor, the congregation gave him a yearly salary of fifteen hundred dollars. They have increased it, till now, for two or three years past, it has been twenty thousand dollars.

As we have already said, Mr. Beecher does a vast amount of work outside of his duties as preacher and pastor. He has so much vitality, such a power for work in him, that he would be wretched if he could not expend his vital force on good and worthy objects. He has made good use of his physiological studies in keeping himself always in the best possible condition for efficient labor. He takes much active exercise, avoids

whatever is likely to impair his health, and trains himself to those economies of time and toil which are the result of thorough system. When he works intellectually it is with all his might, and when he rests, he does it as thoroughly. His labors as contributor and editor of the Independent, his platform speeches, his lectures, his efforts to benefit the city of his adoption, his active political canvass in 1856 and 1860, for Fremont and Lincoln, his great expenditure of time, strength, zeal and money in raising the Long Island regiment and other troops for the war, his constant and effective labors in behalf of the Sanitary and Christian Commissions, and the efforts necessary to keep so large a congregation at a white heat, in their interest in behalf of the war and its objects, though in him only the natural and easy manifestation of his great capacity for work, would have been of themselves more than most men could have endured. Yet except during his visit to England in 1863, he intermitted none of his ordinary pulpit labors during the war, nor did he manifest any less than his usual fervor and eloquence in them.

It must be acknowledged, however, that his extraordinary exertions, during the first two years of the war, together with the editorial charge of the *Independent*, and his duties as preacher and pastor, had, for once, sapped his strength, and were making inroads upon a constitution so vigorous as previously to require no seasons of relaxation and rest. He found himself compelled to take a voyage to England, and endeavor thus to restore his wasted strength, and fit himself the better for the arduous toils yet to come. It was his intention, as he went solely for the restoration of his health, not to preach or speak in public during his absence, and to this resolution he adhered during his first visit to England and while on the Continent. But, on his return to England, in October, 1863, he

found that our friends there required encouragement, and that there was a necessity for disabusing the minds of the English people of the errors and falsehoods, which had been widely propagated among them by the emissaries of the South. He spoke at Manchester, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Liverpool, and London, to audiences of many thousands, and though, in Manchester and Liverpool, the friends of the rebellion had assembled mobs to prevent his speaking, and had attemped to accomplish this, not only by noise, but by threats of personal violence, he succeeded, by dint of fearlessness, good humor, and the power of his voice, in calming the tumult and making himself heard on all the points of the controversy between the two great parties at home, as well as on the difficulties between the United States and European nations. These addresses were of great service in strengthening the hearts of our friends in England, in diffusing correct and much needed information in regard to the real issues at stake, and in encouraging the true men at home. It was a noble service, nobly rendered.

After his return, Mr. Beecher entered with renewed zeal upon the work of aiding our soldiers, providing for the wounded and their families, and upholding the administration, during the trying period of the great battle year, 1864. After the close of the war, he went to Charleston, and assisted in raising the old flag upon Sumter, making an eloquent address on the occasion.

Since that time, in addition to his clerical and editorial labors (on the *Christian Union,* since 1869,) he has been active in other literary enterprises, has devoted much time to public addresses of all sorts, political, literary and religious; and during the past year (1872) has delivered a course of theological lectures on preaching (on the Safe foundation) to the Yale Divinity School.

Mr. Beecher's disposition, though brave, as becomes his

lineage, is yet greatly inclined to mercy. When the war was over he was in favor of the formula of Mr. Greeley, "Universal Amnesty and Universal Suffrage," and was so much inclined to forgive the rebels, whom he supposed to be generally penitent, that he would have been disposed to accept the universal amnesty without the suffrage, for the present, believing that this would come by and by. He had full confidence, too, in Mr. Johnson's good faith and real desire for the reconstruction of the rebellious States on righteous and just principles. For a while, these views alienated from him some of those who had long been his warmest friends, and caused those who had been his bitter enemies to praise him, and to offer him political positions. This and the course of events soon opened his eyes to the false position in which the promptings of his generous nature had placed him. It is needless to say, that he had never, for an instant, faltered in his devotion to the great principles for which he and his friends had so long contended. It was only a question of the propriety of certain measures, and ere long, he saw his mistake, and took his place with the earnest friends of reconstruction on the principles laid down by Congress.

In the campaign of 1872 he supported President Grant, though not with the ardor of some of his previous campaign speeches, and with a fairness and justice toward those who held other views, which was highly honorable to him and worthy of general imitation by public speakers.

We conclude, then, this sketch of Mr. Beecher, with the earnest hope that a life, so full of usefulness, so active in every good cause, so earnest in the promotion of all patriotic measures, may be long protracted, and that a generation yet to come may be blessed by his ministrations.

MATTHEW SIMPSON, D.D., LL.D.,

BISHOP OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

THE bishopric of the Methodist Episcopal Church involves for the discharge of its multifarious duties such an infinitude of labor, such constant and active exercise of all a man's powers, physical, intellectual and moral, that it seems wonderful that any of the bishops can ever find a moment's opportunity to get out of the rut of official duty. There are Conferences to be presided over, on both sides of the continent, causes to be heard and decided (for the bishops are each in their way appellate judges), the missionary affairs, involving an expenditure of one or two millions, to be superintended, and the other great interests of the denomination looked after, and rightfully or wrongfully, every itinerant who has just the charge he did not want, and every church which has just the pastor they did not ask for, feels that the bishop has been led astray by some enemy of theirs. But if this is ordinarily the case, how much more onerous have been the duties of the bishops for the last few years, when owing to the death of several of their number, and the failing health of others, the work which eight men could not accomplish, and for which sixteen would not have been too many, was laid upon the shoulders of four, none of them very vigorous. How a man so overworked can find time for any literary or philanthropic labor outside of his official duties passes our comprehension. Yet Bishop Simp-

son has, during the past ten or twelve years, accomplished an amount of work outside of his episcopal duties which most men would consider sufficient to entitle them to a retiring pension.

MATTHEW SIMPSON was born in Cadiz, Ohio, June 21st, 1810. While he was yet an infant his father died, and his mother, an accomplished and highly educated woman of great piety and judgment, undertook to educate him for the ministry. She early grounded him in the English branches, and finding him an apt and ready scholar, with a remarkable facility for acquiring the languages, encouraged him to commence the study of German when he was but eight years of age. He mastered the language so readily that the following year he read the Bible through in German. He subsequently studied Latin, Greek and Hebrew, as well as some of the modern languages. He also became a proficient in physical and philosophical studies. In 1829, he graduated from Madison College, though he had attended but very few terms there. The same year he joined the Methodist Church, but seemed averse to preparing himself for the ministry, which had been the goal of his mother's hopes. He preferred, on the contrary, the medical profession, and after a very thorough course of medical study, graduated M. D. in 1833. But though he entered upon the practice of his profession with zeal and the best prospect of success, his mother's prayers and entreaties still followed him, and almost without being conscious of it, he found himself drawn toward the ministry. At first he contented himself with exercising his gifts according to the custom of his church as a local preacher; but presently he began to devote himself to theological studies. In 1835, he was admitted to deacon's orders, and in 1837, entered the itineracy. But while he possessed rare abilities as a preacher, his thorough and extensive scholarship caused his services to be in demand for the collegiate institutions of his church. In 1839, he was

called to the Presidency of Indiana Asbury University, and in 1841, transferred to the Vice-Presidency of Alleghany College, and the Professorship of Natural Sciences there. He remained in this position till 1851, but from 1848 took upon him the added duties of editor of the *Western* (now the *Pittsburgh*) *Christian Advocate*, which he conducted with marked ability till his elevation to the bishopric in 1852. He was, when elected, the youngest of the bishops, and though all have been abundant in their labors, and several have gone down to their graves from overwork, it is no disparagement to the others to say that Bishop Simpson has been the hardest worker in the episcopate. Blessed with a vigorous constitution, great powers of endurance, and a remarkable aptitude for the rapid dispatch of business, he had not until the last year shown any symptoms of exhaustion under his multitudinous labors. But of late his physicians have insisted that absolute rest was necessary to the preservation of his valuable life.

From 1852 to 1860, as the junior bishop, his duties were perhaps no more arduous than those of his colleagues, though as a pulpit orator of rare eloquence and power, he was constantly called upon to preach or deliver addresses on subjects not connected strictly with his episcopal duties, and sometimes not with Methodism itself.

But after the commencement of the war, how the man did work! While neglecting none of his official duties, he seemed the very embodiment of patriotism, and like a fire on the prairies, he set everything around him aflame with his zeal. He was an intimate friend and often the wise and judicious counsellor of President Lincoln; from East to West he preached and lectured on the duty of the people to uphold our Government, and rendered more efficient aid than almost any other man to the Christian and Sanitary Commissions. His eloquence in

pleading the cause of our country and its wounded heroes was unsurpassed, and after his appeals, so full of pathos, so touching in their simple beauty, his audiences with eyes streaming with tears, were ready to empty their purses into the collectors' plates, only lamenting that they were not larger and fuller.

Other clergymen of all denominations labored zealously, and accomplished great things for the country in its hour of extreme need; but I think only one, or perhaps two others * equalled Bishop Simpson in the vast extent of their beneficent influence over the nation. Certainly no one surpassed him in this regard.

Since the war, though overtasked with his episcopal duties from the unprecedented mortality among his colleagues, Bishop Simpson has not lost his interest in his country. Often, amid the utmost weariness and physical exhaustion, he has lifted up his voice in warning of national errors or in the encouragement of the nation's faith, and it is largely due to his powerful influence that the great denomination of which he has been so earnest and faithful a leader has kept step so truly and uniformly to the music of the Union.

We can spare our politicians; a hundred of them might die and our country and the world be none the worse; but a stanch, earnest, true-hearted patriot like Bishop Simpson cannot be spared. May it please God long to preserve his life to benefit our nation and the world.

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* Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, and possibly Bishop Rosecrans (Roman Catholic) of Ohio.

JAY COOKE,

BANKER AND FINANCIER.

IN the times that tried men's souls," the dark days of our revolutionary epoch, there was a time when there was the greatest possible danger that the sufferings, the bloodshed, and the sacrifices of our patriotic heroes, might all fail of accomplishing our independence, from the want of the sinews of war, the means of paying the troops, of supplying rations, clothing, arms, and ammunition. At this crisis, when the treasury of the confederation was bankrupt, and there seemed no more room for hope, a Philadelphia banker, Robert Morris by name, came forward, and taking upon his own shoulders the financial burden of the nascent republic, obtained for it, by the pledge of his own credit and private resources, the aid it could not otherwise command.

To this noble, self-sacrificing patriot, as much perhaps as to any other man of the revolutionary period, not less even than to Washington himself, do we owe it, that we are not, to this day, dependencies of the British crown.

In our second war of independence, so recently passed, a war which has had no parallel in ancient or modern times, in the extent of the forces brought into the field, or the vast scale of its expenditure, we had at one time drawn fearfully near the vortex of national bankruptcy. Our currency was greatly

J. A. DIX
CORNELIUS VANDERBILT
CHAS FRANCIS ADAMS
JAY COOKE
THOMAS A. SCOTT
WM H. SEWARD
REVERDY JOHNSON

depreciated, the paper dollar being at one time worth, in the market, but about thirty-six cents in coin, and the prices of all goods of permanent value being inflated to such an extent as to alarm the cautious, and portend speedy ruin. Meantime the exigencies of the war demanded a constantly increasing force in the field, and the expenditure of the Government, mainly for the army and navy, was enlarging till it approached three millions of dollars a day.

At this juncture, when the ablest financial secretary who ever controlled the national treasury was almost in despair, another Philadelphia banker, Jay Cooke by name, brought to the aid of the Government his enterprise, financial skill and extensive credit, and undertook for a pittance which, if he had failed of complete success, would not have been sufficient to have saved him from utter ruin, to negotiate and sell a loan of five hundred millions of dollars, an amount which would have staggered the Rothschilds. He not only accomplished this, but subsequently, to meet the pressing wants of Government, sold eight hundred and thirty millions more. More fortunate than Mr. Morris, in that he did not, in the final result, lose his own fortune, but by the extraordinary enterprise he manifested, paved the way for other and more profitable undertakings with private corporations, Mr. Cooke yet manifested a spirit as truly patriotic as Mr. Morris, and like him, is entitled to the honor of rescuing the nation from threatened bankruptcy.

The Cooke family trace their lineage back to Francis Cooke, one of the godly and goodly men who formed the company which landed at Plymouth, Massachusetts, in the Mayflower, in 1620, and who erected the third house built in Plymouth. Of his descendants one branch emigrated to Connecticut, and another to northern New York. From the latter stock, some of the descendants of which are still living in Granville, Washington

county, New York, came the father of Jay Cooke, Eleutheros Cooke, an eminent lawyer and political leader of northern Ohio.

Eleutheros Cooke was born in Middle Granville, New York, received a collegiate education, studied law, and after practicing for a few years in Saratoga and its vicinity, removed, with a company of his neighbors, to the vicinity of Sandusky, Ohio, in 1817. Here he speedily attained distinction in his profession, ranking as the leading lawyer of that part of the State, and being the first Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of Ohio. An active and influential Whig, he was elected to numerous positions of trust and honor, was the representative of his district in the State Legislature for many years, and in 1831 was elected to Congress.

In his early candidacy for the State Legislature he found his name (Eleutheros) a great disadvantage; the illiterate Germans of Seneca county could not comprehend, or write it correctly, and he was at one time defeated, by the throwing out by Democratic judges of a thousand ballots for defective spelling. He determined thenceforward to give his children short and simple names. His eldest he called Pitt, after the great English minister; the second, Jay, after our illustrious chief justice, a third, Henry, and so on.

Jay Cooke, the second son of this family, was born at Portland (now Sandusky), Huron county, Ohio, August 10, 1821. His early education was obtained at home, for there were few good schools in that region at that early period. But though it was home teaching, it was none the less thorough on that account. Mr. Cooke was very anxious to have his children well educated. When at home, he instructed them himself, and when absent, his wife, a well educated lady, undertook the work. In his more distant legal or political excursions, whenever he found a book store, he laid in a stock of books for the

household at home. The boys were all quick to learn, and made progress in their studies. During Mr. Eleutheros Cooke's term in Congress, there was a very general time of financial pressure in the West, and on his return home, he found his affairs considerably embarrassed, and became somewhat depressed. Standing in his door one day, and seeing his three boys coming home from school, (for there was at this time a school of some merit in Sandusky,) he went to meet them, and putting his arms around them, said, half sadly and half in jest, "My boys, I have nothing left for you; you must go and look out for yourselves." The elder and the younger remained silent and downcast, but Jay, then about thirteen years of age, looking up in his father's face with great earnestness, said, "Father, I am old enough to work. I will go and earn for myself." Mr Cooke did not regard this remark as any thing more than an expression of the boy's affectionate and enterprising nature, and as he had no intention of turning either of his boys out, at that time, to earn their own living, he thought no more of it. But the next day, when the other boys went to school, Jay slipped away, and went to the store of a Mr. Hubbard, in Sandusky, and asked him to employ him as a clerk. Mr. Hubbard, who was doing a thriving business, happened to be just then in want of a clerk, having dismissed his only one a few days before, for dishonesty. Jay was a favorite of his, and admiring his artlessness and resolution, he forthwith employed him.

That night, when Mrs. Cooke reproached the boy for playing truant, he replied, with a flush of noble independence, "Why, mother, I won't be a trouble to you any longer; I am now earning for myself."

The parents, after consultation, determined to let Jay work out his own destiny, and the next day, and every day thenceforward, the boy was at his place promptly, and proved so faith

ful, intelligent and apt as a salesman, and was so ready and quick at figures, that his employer formed a strong attachment for him, taught him book-keeping, and instructed him in other branches which he had failed to acquire at school.

After some time, Mr. Hubbard's partner left him for a long journey, and Mr. Hubbard himself fell sick, so that the whole care of the store came upon Jay. He attended to it faithfully, and at evening took the keys and the day's receipts to his sick employer, with whom he staid usually through the evenings. After he had been eleven months in Mr. Hubbard's employ, a Mr. Seymour who was about starting in business in St. Louis, prevailed on him to go with him to that city as clerk and book-keeper. The enterprise did not prove successful, and at the end of about nine months Seymour and Jay Cooke returned to Sandusky. While the latter remained at home for a time, awaiting a position, he attended an excellent school, in which he devoted his attention almost exclusively to algebra and the higher mathematics. In these he soon excelled. His only amusement was fishing, among the islands of Sandusky bay, a pastime which he still enjoys with all a boy's enthusiasm. After a few months of close application, his brother-in-law, Mr. William G. Moorhead, then, as since, largely engaged in rail-road and canal enterprises, and residing in Philadelphia, visited Sandusky, his former home, and perceiving young Cooke's proficiency in mathematical and mercantile studies, offered him the position of book-keeper in his office. Jay accepted and spent a year in Philadelphia, when the firm was dissolved, and Mr. Moorhead received the appointment from the Government, of consul to Valparaiso.

Jay returned to Sandusky and entered the school again, when his father received a letter from Mr. E. W. Clark, of E. W. Clark & Co., a leading banking firm of Philadelphia, asking permis-

sion to take his son, Jay, of whom the firm had had very favorable accounts, into their establishment and give him a thorough training as a banker. The father, after some hesitation, decided to send his son to Philadelphia, and this proved the turning point in his fortune. The house of E. W. Clark & Co., was one of high reputation for probity and honor, and had its branches in Boston, New York, New Orleans, St. Louis, and Burlington, Iowa. It was at that time, and for several years, the largest domestic exchange banking house in the United States.

Though not quite seventeen years old when he entered this house, Jay Cooke soon impressed the partners so favorably by his earnest zeal to understand thoroughly the whole business of finance, and his careful attention to business, that he was, for some time before he became of age, entrusted with full powers of attorney to use the name of the firm. An act of kindness thoroughly characteristic of him, at this time, was, during the war, perverted into an occasion of slander and abuse. It was stated by some of the daily papers in New York and elsewhere that he was of low origin, an obscure western banker, and that while in Philadelphia he had been bar tender to a third rate tavern. There was hardly the faintest shadow of truth, to serve as the basis of those preposterous stories. He was never a western banker in his life, but as we shall show presently had been for twenty-five years a member, and the real head of one of the largest banking houses in the country; he was from an honored and distinguished family in northern Ohio, and his only connection with a hotel in Philadelphia consisted in the fact, that, during his first residence there, he boarded with an excellent family who owned a small hotel, and who were very kind to him during his stay. On his return he again took a room with this family, and finding that the worthy landlord

who was somewhat advanced in years and in feeble health, was in some financial difficulty, and had been obtaining heavy loans of Messrs E. W. Clark & Co., who had at last became apprehensive of his solvency, he persuaded the old man to let him examine into his condition. He found that he was nearly insolvent, and that he had been plundered by dishonest bar-tenders and book-keepers. He accordingly volunteered to make up his cash account for him every night, when he came from his office, and to do this was under the necessity of entering his bar. He continued this kind service till the death of his old friend, and had the happiness of knowing that he had retrieved for him a part at least, of his fortune. For this he was sneered at, as a bar-keeper.

At the age of twenty-one (in 1842), he became a partner in the house of E. W. Clark & Co., and remained in it until 1858, being for the greater part of that time its active business manager, and much of the time its real head. During this time Government had issued several loans, to which the firm had largely subscribed. In 1840, when but nineteen years of age, Mr. Cooke had written the first money article ever published in a Philadelphia paper, and for a year continued to edit the financial column of the *Daily Chronicle*, one of the three journals in the country, which then had a daily money article. On his retirement from the firm of E. W. Clark & Co., in 1858, Mr. Cooke had amassed a comfortable fortune, and had purposed to live thenceforth more at his ease. He still, however, negotiated large loans for railroad and other corporations, and attended, in a quiet way, to other financial operations.

At the commencement of 1861, Mr. Cooke formed a partnership with his brother-in-law, Mr. William G. Moorhead, in the banking business, under the firm name of Jay Cooke & Co. The object of both partners was to provide business openings

for their sons. Mr. Moorhead brought to the firm a long and successful experience in railroad matters. In the spring of 1861, when the Government sought to place its first loan, the firm of Jay Cooke & Co., procured and forwarded to Washington, without compensation, a large list of subscribers. The State of Pennsylvania required a war loan of several millions, and it was negotiated mostly by Jay Cooke & Co., who succeeded in placing it at par, though it was at a time of great commercial and financial depression.

These successful negotiations attracted the attention of the Secretary of the Treasury to their ability as financiers. Soon afterward, having failed to obtain satisfactory aid from the associated banks, Mr. Chase resolved to try the experiment of a popular loan, and to this end, appointed four hundred special agents, mostly presidents or cashiers of prominent banking institutions throughout the country. In Philadelphia, Jay Cooke & Company were selected, and they immediately organized a system which resulted in the popularization of the loan, and secured the co-operation of the masses in the subscription to it. Of the entire sum secured by the four hundred agents, not quite thirty millions in all, one third was returned by Jay Cooke & Company. As this did not fill the treasury, whose wants were constantly increasing, with sufficient rapidity, Mr. Chase, after consultation with eminent financiers, determined to place the negotiation of the five hundred millions of five-twenty bonds, just authorized by Congress, in the hands of a special agent, as Congress had given him permission to do. Mr. Cooke's success in this small loan, led Mr. Chase to select him for the agent. He accepted the appointment, and organized his plans for the sale of the loan, with what success is now a matter of history.

A bolder and more daring financial undertaking than this is

not to be found in the records of monetary history. The risks were frightful, the compensation, if no sales were made, nothing; if they were effected, five eighths of one per cent. on the amount sold, which was to cover all commissions to sub-agents, advertising, correspondence, postage, clerk hire, express fees, and remuneration for labor and superintendence. The Government assumed no risks, and if the loan failed to take with the people, the advertising and other expenses alone would swallow up the entire fortune of Mr. Cooke and his partners. The commissions received by European bankers for negotiating such a loan, themselves assuming no risks, are from four to eight per cent., and there was not another banking house in the United States which would have taken it on the terms accepted by Mr. Cooke; but his country was engaged in a deadly strife for the preservation of its liberties; it needed money in vast sums to conduct this gigantic struggle successfully, and if it did not have it promptly, the great sacrifices made already, would prove in vain. Some one, possessing an ample fortune, must have patriotism enough to take the risk, great as it was, and if it must be so, ruin himself in the effort to save his country. In the secretary's tendering him this position, first and unhesitatingly, there seemed to be a call of Divine Providence on him to undertake this great responsibility. He accepted it as a Christian and a patriot, and it is no more than the truth to say, that in the history of the war, no enterprise was undertaken from a higher motive, or from a loftier sense of duty and patriotism.

His labors, during this sale of bonds, were incessant; "he was," says a banker, a friend of his, "the hardest worked man in America." Public opinion, in favor of the loan, was to be created and stimulated; the loan itself was to be made accessible to all classes, and all were to be shown that it was for their interest and benefit to invest all their surplus, be it little or

much, in these bonds of the nation; every village must have its agent, so that all parties, the sempstress, the domestic, the young journeyman, or the farmer's boy, who had but fifty dollars of their earnings to invest, the fruit of long savings and painful toil, might be as well and as promptly accommodated as the rich capitalist who wished to purchase his hundreds of thousands. Every loyal paper in the nation had its advertisements, and every vehicle of information by which the masses could be reached its carefully written articles explaining and commending the bonds. Over half a million of dollars were expended in this machinery, before the receipts began to come in. Mr. Cooke's partners were getting a little anxious, but his countenance was still sunny, and his faith in the loyalty of the nation, firm as a rock. Then, after awhile, the orders began to come; first, like the few drops that betoken the coming storm, then faster and thicker, patter, patter, patter; then an overwhelming flood, that kept all hands busy till midnight, day after day. So great was the rush for the bonds toward the last, that when Mr. Cooke gave notice that no more could be sold after a certain day and hour, and that the five hundred millions were already taken, the orders and money poured in, till he was obliged to issue, and Congress to legalize, fourteen millions beyond the amount first authorized.

It was a grand, a glorious success, and at once put Mr. Cooke in the first rank among the great financiers of the world; but the immediate pecuniary profit from it was very small. As we have said, the commission to cover all expenditures was but five-eighths of one per cent., and from this were paid the advertising, review articles, clerk hire, postage, and express fees, and one fourth of one per cent. commission to sub-agents. But this was not all the deductions which were to be made on this gross commission The nation has never had an abler, nor a more

really economical Secretary of the Treasury, than Mr. Chase. He was so careful, so scrupulous, in regard to the expenditures of his department, that even in these great enterprises, his economy almost approached to penuriousness. Though the sales of the five-twenty bonds were solely due to the almost superhuman efforts of Jay Cooke and the corps of agents whom he had trained, and he was entitled, therefore, to a commission on the entire amount, under the ordinary customs of financial transactions, a portion of the sub-agents had applied directly to the treasury department for their bonds, and Mr. Chase refused to pay him a commission on any of these, so that he actually received his commission only on three hundred and sixty-three millions. A selfish and mercenary man would have insisted on his right to the entire commission, and might very possibly have secured it, but it was from no selfish or mercenary motive that Mr. Cooke had entered upon this work, and he allowed the economical secretary, whose ability, integrity, and patriotism he never questioned, to settle the matter as he believed to be most for the interest of the nation.

Mr. Chase believed that the popularization of this loan had so enamored the people with Government bonds, that he should find no difficulty in floating a five per cent. ten-forty loan, without the aid of the Philadelphia banking agency. He tried it, but the public mind was not prepared for it, and he projected a large issue of seven-thirty three year bonds, the interest payable in currency, and the bonds convertible at maturity into five-twenty six per cent. bonds, the interest payable in coin.

Meanwhile the price of gold was constantly increasing, or rather the gold value of the currency was rapidly decreasing. The national banking system which he had inaugurated, and in which Mr. Cooke had rendered him most essential aid, was as

yet an experiment, and for the want of some additional provisions, subsequently made by Congress, the State banks and many of the large public and private bankers of the great cities were fighting the national banks with great ferocity. This system was destined ere long to become a magnificent success, and to displace all the State organizations with a rapidity which reminded the observer of the transformation of the genii of Persian story; but for the present affairs looked gloomy.

The great fighting was going on from the Rapidan to the James (for it was the early part of the great battle summer of 1864), and every department of the Government was calling for more men and more money, and as yet no great victories had presaged the coming overthrow of the rebellion. Sick at heart, worn down with excessive labor, and feeling that his great efforts had not been fully appreciated, Mr. Chase suddenly resigned, in June, 1864, and Mr. Fessenden, an able financier, though of less sunny temper, succeeded him.

The rapid depreciation of the currency which ensued on the announcement of this change, is one of the cardinal points in the memory of the bulls and bears of our generation. In fifteen days, gold rose from 88 per cent. premium to 185 per cent., and there was a fierce outcry against the Government, for all men feared impending bankruptcy.

In this emergency, Mr. Fessenden applied to Jay Cooke, whose abilities he well knew, to put his strong shoulder again to the wheel, and lift the Government out of the slough of despond, in which it was fast settling. The appeal was not in vain. Again the army of sub-agents was organized; again the loyal papers of every state teemed with advertisements, this time of seven-thirty bonds; again the pens of ready writers were in demand to write up the advantages of Government securities, and Mr. Cooke himself essayed the defence of the

financial paradox, "a national Debt, a national Blessing." Again were the mails burdened with orders, and men and women, old and young, of all stations in life, hastened to secure the Government's promises to pay. Mr. Cooke and the houses with which he was in correspondence, had, meantime, opened the way for large transactions, at rapidly increasing prices, in our bonds, in Europe; had diffused information, especially in Germany, Switzerland, and Holland in regard to them, till, early in 1865, nearly two hundred millions of United States Government bonds had been placed in Europe. This amount was subsequently still farther increased to between four and five hundred millions, and those bonds are to-day as regularly called at the boards of London, Paris, Amsterdam, Frankfort, and Berlin, as at those of our American cities.

The success of the three series of seven-thirty loans, was as great as that of the five-twenties had been; greater if we take into account the larger amount, the already great indebtedness of the Government, and the depressing circumstances under which they were first put upon the market. In less than a year eight hundred and thirty millions of these bonds were sold. During this period, a part of the time, the Government expenditure exceeded three millions of dollars a day, but soon, under the heavy blows of great armies well fed and clothed, and abundantly supplied with money and all the munitions of war, one stronghold of the enemy after another fell into our hands, victory resounded from one end of the country to the other, and the great rebellion was crushed.

After the war, the house of Jay Cooke & Co., which still had its branches in Washington and New York, confined itself to the negotiation of loans for great corporate enterprises, dealing in Government securities, etc., etc., and still, in the vastness of its enterprises, the integrity and honor of its dealings, and the

consummate financial ability which has marked all its operations, retains and is ever increasing its past prestige.

On the 1st of January, 1871, Mr. Cooke established a branch of his banking house in London, under the firm name of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co., the resident head of the London house being Hon. Hugh McCulloch, the late able and trusted Secretary of the United States Treasury. The new American Banking house in London at once took rank beside the leading financial institutions of the Old World, such as the Barings and the Rothschilds. During the first year of its existence, and in co-operation with the American branches of the house, it achieved a success in connection with United States Government finances which gave the house wide and deserved prestige, and brilliantly proved that the genius which enabled Mr. Cooke to accomplish such vast results in the troubled times of war, is also equal to the greatest and most difficult monetary negotiations in time of peace.

Congress having authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to fund a large part of the public debt at lower rates of interest; in other words, to sell at par in coin new bonds bearing five and four and a half per cent. interest, and with the proceeds redeem an equal amount of outstanding six per cent. bonds, the Treasury Department attempted the negotiation of $200,000,000 new five per cents. After six months of active effort both in America and Europe, and after exhausting all expedients, the Government had been able to sell only some $60,000,000, which amount was almost wholly taken by the National Banks of the United States. Secretary Boutwell then placed the agency for the sale of the new loan in the hands of Jay Cooke & Co., and Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co. The latter, having associated with themselves several leading houses in London and New York, promptly brought out the loan on the markets of Great

Britain and the Continent of Europe, and within twelve days of the first offering the remainder of the $200,000,000 was all subscribed and the loan closed.

The brilliant success was as much a surprise to financial circles in Europe as it was a gratification to the United States Government. In opposition to the prevalent views of theoretical financiers in America, it practically proved that the entire public debt could be funded at such low rates of interest as to save our people a yearly expenditure of twenty to thirty million dollars.

Soon after the successful closing of the $200,000,000 loan, the house of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Co., and that of L. M. Rothschild & Sons of London, made a joint proposal to the United States Government, looking to the negotiation of a further amount of $600,000,000 of the new bonds, on terms similar to those attending the former. This proposition, coming from two such eminent houses, and covering the largest single negotiation known to modern finance, was favorably received by the Government, but diplomatic complications between the United States and Great Britain, growing out of the *Alabama* claims and the Treaty of Washington, temporarily postponed the final consideration of the matter.

In addition to the above-named negotiations, and the general supervision of the regular and ordinary business of the several branches of his house, Mr. Cooke has since 1870 made something of a specialty of the finances of the Northern Pacific Railroad. After thorough and conscientious investigation his firm accepted the fiscal agency of this great corporation, and undertook the sale of its construction bonds.

Under his careful and energetic financial management, this greatest commercial enterprise of the age is moving forward to assured success. The building of this second highway to the

Pacific is the leading agency in the settlement, development and civilization of the Northwestern part of the continent.

Mr. Cooke still works hard, but he enjoys life, and whether at his city residence, or in that magnificent palace which his princely fortune has enabled him to rear in the vicinity of Philadelphia, or, in the summer months, at that beautiful country-seat on Gibraltar island in Lake Erie, where, as in boyhood, he enjoys trolling for the scaly denizens of the lake, he is the same sunny-faced, genial, whole-hearted man, as when years ago he managed the affairs of E. W. Clark & Co. With all his hard work and great enterprises, the spirit of the boy has not died out of him. Mr. Cooke's liberality is as princely as his fortune. Throughout the war, he was lavish in his gifts to the Sanitary Commission, to the hospitals, to sick and wounded soldiers, to the Christian Commission, and to all good enterprises. Since the war, the recording angel alone can tell how many of our crippled veterans he has helped to attain a competency, how many soldiers, widows, and orphans he has aided and blessed, how many homes, made desolate by the war, he has cheered and brightened. To Kenyon college, Ohio, he has given twenty-five thousand dollars, and to a theological seminary of his own church (the Protestant Episcopal) a still larger sum. In the vicinity of his home on Chelton Hills, near Philadelphia, he has built several country churches.

On one of the beautiful islands of Lake Erie, near Sandusky, he has erected a charming country-seat, and has built a neat chapel for the residents of the island. Here he spends his summer resting time, and plays as hard as he works the rest of the year. But he is not content to take his play-spell alone, and for some weeks before his annual visit there, his leisure moments are employed in sending missives, usually with check enclosed, to hard

worked country clergymen, inviting them to spend their summer vacation with him on the island. Many a country parson, in a poor parish, with a scattered and illiterate population, when just ready to yield to discouragement, has found his heart cheered, his faith strengthened, and his capacity for efficient labor greatly increased, by a visit to the hospitable home of the Philadelphia banker.

Wealth hoarded with miserly greed, withheld from all good and wise charities, or bestowed only on the gratification of pride, appetite, or lust, is a curse; but wealth held in recognition of man's stewardship to the God who has given it, and scattered so wisely as to comfort and cheer the unfortunate, the helpless, and the needy, and to rear the institutions of religion, is a blessing for which the world has cause to be grateful.

ALEXANDER TURNEY STEWART.

ABOUT 1825, an alert, sanguine, and active young man commenced the dry goods business in Broadway, nearly opposite his present wholesale warehouse, with a capital of about three thousand dollars. In the three years 1865–'6–'7, this gentleman sold two hundred and three million dollars worth of goods. It is hardly necessary to say that the young man was Alexander Turney Stewart, whose income for 1864 was the largest of any merchant in the world.

Carefully reared by a pious grandfather in Belfast, Ireland, Mr. Stewart received an excellent classical education in Trinity College, Dublin. His grandfather was very desirous that he should become a clergyman, but his death occurring before the grandson had completed his college course, a Quaker friend was appointed his guardian, and at his earnest solicitation procured for him letters of introduction to leading merchants of the Society of Friends in New York.

On reaching New York, Mr. Stewart looked around for a career. He taught the classics, in which his careful study had made him singularly proficient, not with a view of making it a profession, but to oblige a friend. At length he formed a partnership with a gentleman, who was to furnish a portion of the means and all the experience for a mercantile career. For some reason or other, this party abandoned the enterprise. Mr. Stewart, not daunted, went back at once to Ireland, converted the small fortune he had inherited into money, invested it all in

goods, principally Belfast laces, returned to New York, and opened a store, in 1825, at 262 Broadway. Almost in the first week of his mercantile career, he had the good or ill fortune to be discharged by one of his salesmen. The occasion was as follows:—

One day an old lady came in and accosting the young man alluded to, asked to see some calicoes.

She seemed satisfied with the style, but asked, with prudent caution—

"Will this wash?"

"Oh! yes, ma'am."

"Then I'll take a little piece and try it, and if the colors are fast, I'll get some of it."

"What's the use of taking all that trouble," said the clerk. "I have tried it, and I know it holds its color."

The old lady felt assured and took a dress. Ladies did wear calicoes, then. Mr. Stewart was an interested auditor during this discourse. When the lady departed, he stepped up and said:

"But, Mr. ——, why did you tell that old lady such an untruth about that calico?"

"Oh! that's all in the way of business," said the salesman.

"But," said Mr. Stewart, "that doesn't seem a good way of business. That lady will try the calico; it will fade—she will come and accuse us of misrepresentation and demand her money back, and she will be right."

"Oh! then I'll say, 'you are quite mistaken, ma'am; you never got the goods here; you must have got them at the store above.'"

"Well then, if that's the case," said the master of the business, 'don't let it occur again. I don't want goods represented for what they are not. If the colors are not fast, it is easy to ex-

plain to them that certain colors are not fast, and cannot be made so for the price at which they are sold, and they will buy as soon, knowing the truth, as any other way."

"Look here, Mr. Stewart," said the salesman, "if those are going to be your principles in trade, I'm going to look for another situation. You won't last very long!"

And he was as good as his word. It appears, however, that Mr. Stewart's ideas of business were tolerably successful, for to-day he wields a capital of many millions. Apart from this rigorous devotion to principle in his business, Mr. Stewart owes much of his success to great delicacy of touch and taste, and judgment in colors and textures, almost feminine in sensibility; add to these qualities a masculine grasp of events and an instantaneous perception of those shadows which are cast by events, and you have all the elements of the great merchant. Mr. Stewart early began to survey the political field, and when he forsaw a storm ahead, there would be a silent purchase of all of certain goods in the market, which would be sure to rise in a certain contingency. At other times he was the first to foresee a falling market and to put his goods before the public with such swiftness and address that he cleared his shelves with the least loss—while his slower friends were carried under the current of thirty-seven, forty-seven, fifty-seven, or sixty-seven, as the case might be. (Our merchants are superstitious about the 'sevens," and many think to-day that any year, with a seven in it, brings misfortune to the trade.) There was a time during the war when Mr. Stewart held more cotton goods than all the other dry goods firms put together. There was also a time when he was the first to sell at the reduced price. Mr. Stewart has a memory for his business as remarkable as that of others for languages and figures. He can tell to-day the ruling prices of staple goods for every year of the last forty.

Another peculiarity. The house of A. T. Stewart & Co. has always bought for cash—and one more and striking peculiarity, full of its lesson to American merchants—he has never speculated one penny's worth outside of his business, nor, strictly speaking, in it. When he has bought largely, it was to supply his customers with a greatly needed article—and when he reduced prices, it was not to injure others, but a ready submission to the inevitable in trade. His advantage consisted in knowing early what was inevitable. In connection with this, let us remark here, that reading this, one might suppose Mr. Stewart to be little *more* than a dealer in dry goods. There could be no greater mistake. He is a liberally educated gentleman, as we said before. Like all leaders, business is easy to him and does *not* absorb his whole soul. There are few men in our country better qualified to derive enjoyment from Horace and Tacitus, than Mr. Stewart. He is the hope and refuge of artists—for he is an admirer and enjoyer of good works of art, and if he does not buy all that appears meritorious, it is only because the marble mansion in Fifth Avenue, and the brown stone opposite, will hold no more.

There is in some circles an impression, studiously cultivated by a few, that Mr. Stewart squeezes out small dealers mercilessly —lest they grow too great for him. It is entirely unfounded. He conducts his business on business principles, and no business can last long, or become great, that is conducted otherwise. That Mr. Stewart regrets the inevitable injury to small dealers, which his large operations cause, we have ample evidence. He said recently to a gentleman, who was making some inquiries:

"They'll have me in the concert saloon business next." Laughing again, probably at the curious figure he would cut in that avocation, "The truth is, I intend only to enlarge the facilities for retail trade at the upper store, and group together

those departments which should be properly associated, and which are now scattered on two floors, and cause a great deal of running up and down stairs. Here is the Yankee notion stock; we have no room for it here, and it ought to be moved up to the other store. I am urged to do this constantly, but hesitate only for one reason. The moment we throw open that department to the retail trade, a great many smaller dealers in the vicinity will suffer. The advantages we possess are so superior that competition of small dealers is out of the question, and the moment they feel the pressure they cry out against monopoly, and attribute all kinds of vindictiveness to the firm. But, after all, the public at large are benefitted. We are enabled to offer them the largest stock at the smallest cost, with all the guarantees that are inseparable from a responsible house, whose name and honor are part of the business. This seems to be the great advantage of the tendency to aggregate business interests of a kindred nature. It cheapens manufacture, and capital becomes a vehicle between the petty producer and the consumer. Aside from the fact that the system economizes power, it should be remembered that it is better calculated to foster native industry in many cases. Take, for instance, the American beaver cloths, made for this house expressly by the Utica Steam Mills. They are now conceded to be equal to any made anywhere, and lying side by side with imported goods, suffer no depreciation. They are perfecting the manufacture so rapidly in cassimeres and similar goods, under proper stimulation, that already the demand for American manufacture exceeds the foreign. It is absurd to suppose, as is generally the case, that the increasing facilities and demands of a great business in New York, or anywhere, in fact, must be associated with rivalry or greed; generally the magnitude of the business swallows up all such considerations; in fact the growth and extension are not

the subject of special endeavor, but are the inevitable consequence of a healthy organization. Any business beyond a certain point becomes germinal, and grows in all directions. The greatest care has to be exercised in its training and pruning. People come to me and ask me for my secret of success; why, I have no secret, I tell them. My business has been a matter of principle from the start. That's all there is about it. If the golden rule can be incorporated into purely mercantile affairs it has been done in this establishment, and you must have noticed, if you have observed closely, that the customers are treated precisely as the seller himself would like to be treated were he in their place. That is to say, nothing is misrepresented, the price is fixed, once and for all, at the lowest possible figure, and the circumstances of the buyer are not suffered to influence the salesman in his conduct in the smallest particular. I think you will find the same principle of justice throughout the larger transactions of the house, and especially in its dealings with employees. I do not speak of it as deserving of praise—we find it absolutely necessary. What we cannot afford is violation of principle."

Here Mr. Stewart has given his whole theory of business. To another gentleman, who said to him one morning—"Mr. Stewart, you are a very rich man, why do you bother yourself building this immense place?"

Said Mr. Stewart: "That is the very question I asked myself this morning, when I took a look at that big hole in the ground. The worst of it is," he continued, without giving a complete reply, and with a regretful tone, as if the thing must be done, and yet cause him sorrow, "my neighbors don't like it."

The stories of Mr. Stewart's competition with other houses, large or small, are all mythical. There is room enough for all, in his opinion, and we may say, that in our opinion, when an-

other man comes along with the qualifications of a Stewart, he will acquire the fortune of a Stewart.

"The star of your fate is in your own breast," says the German poet.

Mr. Stewart is, of course, the recipient of a vast number of applications for every kind and form of charity. To deserving objects, his liberality is large and enduring—but he fights the many swindles and dribbles that eat away weaker men's fortunes without helping the receiver, with a keenness and warmth that is acquainted with the tricks and manners of the begging tribe. Many old merchants of New York, who have failed in business, have had their declining years made easy by the kindness of Mr. Stewart, but he is as reticent of these deeds as he is of every thing that tends to personal praise. The large way in which he prefers to do things, is evidenced in his conduct during the last season of great distress in Ireland, during our war, when he bought a ship, loaded her with stores, shipped them to Belfast, his native town, and brought over in return, a ship load of young men and women, free of cost, to the land of hope—America, and at the same time repaying to Belfast, with interest, the capital he had brought from thence at the commencement of his career. To the relief of the Lancashire operatives in 1863, he contributed $10,000, and to the sufferers from the Chicago fire $50,000, and subsequently $50,000 more.

As to his views on politics, Mr. Stewart has attempted, as far as he has been active at all, to get public affairs out of the hands of professional politicians, into those of men who will do the public business on the same principles upon which private business is done. This will be the case some day, but Mr. Stewart will not live to see it. He was the strong and active friend of General Grant as a candidate for the Presidency, and was one of the large contributors to the present of one hundred

thousand dollars, made him by the merchants of New York city, as an acknowledgment of his great services in the overthrow of the Rebellion. After General Grant's inauguration he was nominated Secretary of the Treasury; but being a large importer he could not legally hold the office, and his name was withdrawn and Mr. Boutwell's substituted for it.

Mr. Stewart is a man of progress—of the modern time—he is a man for improvement and enjoyment. When he builds, he does it with iron, and plenty of glass—fire proof—with abundant light—the structure perfectly adapted to all its purposes, and securing the comfort of all within—no gothic dimness, or Grecian anachronism in architecture, has a chance with him. When he builds a house for another—as his marble palace in Fifth Avenue—to use his own words, "a little attention to Mrs. Stewart"—it is a different matter. That is to please her.

Mr. Stewart is about sixty-nine years of age, but looks good for twenty more. His eyes twinkle, as blue eyes often do, with the coming light of a frequent good thing. He has a merry turn of mind, and enjoys himself in a little party with young folks, equal to any of his juniors, and can make fun, and take fun, equal to any.

The operations of the house of A. T. Stewart & Co., are literally world wide. Mr. William Libby, in New York, Mr. Francis Warden, permanently in Paris, and Mr. G. Fox, in Manchester, England, compose the firm. It has three foreign bureaus, or depots—one on a triangular square at Cooper street, Manchester, where are collected, examined, and packed, all English goods. One at Belfast, for linens, which partakes of the nature of a factory as well, the linens being bought in the rough, and afterward bleached and fitted for the trade. This establishment is about the size of a double New York store, that is fifty by one hundred feet. In Glasgow, the firm have a

house exclusively for Scotch goods. In Paris, the *magazin*, on the Rue Bergere, has been known to continental manufacturers for many years. Here are collected and arranged, for shipping to America, all East Indian, French and German goods, exclusive of woolens. In Berlin is the woolen-house, equal in size to three ordinary New York stores. There are also, at Lyons, two large warehouses for silk goods. All the continental business is transacted at the Paris bureau, payments are made there, and a general supervision extended over the other establishments. In addition to these, it must be remembered that there are a number of manufacturers who do work exclusively for this firm, and are really branches of the business. For instance, they have the house of Alexandre, in Paris, constantly manufacturing kid gloves for Stewart & Co., exclusively, while in this country and Great Britain, mills run all the year round to supply the New York house with goods. One such customer taxes all their powers.

Then there are buyers, one for each of the fifteen departments in this house, who are constantly travelling somewhere between Hong Kong and Chili, and who are in a measure responsible for the condition of those departments at home. Special agents, too, on important embassies of a confidential nature, putting up in Thibet, or Brussels, or found on the Ganges, or among the Chinese cocoons. In fact, the cosmopolitan part of the house, the circulating human capital, must be formidable in numbers and diplomacy if ever assembled. And they were assembled once, we believe, at Manchester. A rumor had got abroad in Europe, that Mr. Stewart had died. To correct it, and accomplish some important movement, Mr. Stewart telegraphed extensively over the hemisphere for his ministers to meet him in Manchester, on a certain day, and there is a legend in that place of a mysterious congress having been held there, though

public opinion was for a long time divided as to whether they were Orsini sympathizers, or Yankee invaders.

In 1863, Mr. Stewart returned an income of $1,900,000—in 1864, one of $4,000,000, in 1865, of $1,600,000, and for 1866, of $600,000—an average of very near $2,000,000 per year. Whether this rate of profit can be kept up is a question, but it is probable that the average will be increased instead of diminished. Mr. Stewart is a large holder of real estate, owning three or four of the largest hotels in New York, besides numerous stores and dwellings, and unimproved lands. He has also within the past three or four years purchased a very large tract of land known as the Hempstead Plains, on Long Island, ten or twelve miles from New York, where he is building a large city, and to which he has completed a railroad from the metropolis.

Among his other benevolent enterprises is one now fast approaching completion, of a hotel for workingwomen, where all the comforts, conveniences, and appliances of the best hotels are to be furnished to workingwomen, under such arrangements that pleasant, airy, and commodious rooms, well furnished, and excellent board can be had by those women for from $2.75 to $3.00 per week. He has projected a similar establishment for young men, and has also in view a large number of model tenement houses much after the plan of Mr. Peabody's in London. It is a grand example which this greatest of merchant princes is setting to the world, that of devoting the greater part of his colossal fortune to ameliorate the condition of the lowly. Would that more of our rich men had the same spirit.

ABIEL ABBOT LOW,

PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

PEACE, said Mr. Sumner, in one of his most classic and eloquent orations, "hath its victories no less than war." The merchant prince, whose enterprise has included within its grasp the traffic of the far distant lands of the orient, whose ships are on every sea, and who brings to his bursting warehouses, the products of all climes, has really achieved as great a triumph, and one far more beneficial and bloodless, than the warrior who has led his conquering legions over desolated homes, and amid the ruins of sacked cities. And if this peaceful hero uses his wealth as wisely as he has acquired it, and by his large beneficence makes thousands and tens of thousands happy, then is his victory greater than that of any leader of a marshalled host, whose garments are stained with blood, for his triumphs are over the forces of nature, and the selfish and unhallowed passions of men, and "greater is he that ruleth his own spirit, than he that taketh a city."

Among these heroes in the bloodless strife, Mr. Low is entitled to a high place of honor. During a long commercial life of wonderful success, and filled with great enterprises, he has ever maintained an enviable reputation for the highest honor and principle, and no unworthy deed or word has ever linked itself with his name. More than this, in all great measures of benevolence, whether for aiding the poor of New

York or Brooklyn, sustaining the government in putting down the rebellion, providing bounties for the soldiers, and supplies for the regiments, or succoring the families of our brave defenders, sending aid to the famishing sufferers of Lancashire, sustaining the Sanitary Commission in its noble work, manifesting the grateful emotions of the commercial class toward the leaders of our army and navy, establishing and endowing libraries and scientific institutions, or in the more direct promotion of the interests of religion. Mr. Low's contributions have always been among the most liberal. Other citizens of New York possess larger wealth than he, but none have made a more admirable and beneficial use of it.

Abiel Abbot Low was born in Salem, Massachusetts, we believe, in 1796. His father, the late Seth Low, was himself an eminent merchant, and soon after Abiel had reached his majority, removed to New York, and made Brooklyn his place of residence. The house of Seth Low and Company, (afterwards Seth Low and Sons,) had, both in Salem and New York, been largely engaged in the China and East India trade, and it was not, therefore, surprising that Mr. Low should have desired to visit China, and acquire a knowledge of the business there, in which so many fortunes had been made. His excellent early business training, and the remarkable capacity for great enterprises, which he had early manifested, rendered him peculiarly adapted to attain success in this position. Soon after his arrival in China, he received the offer of a partnership in the well-known house of Russell and Company, of Canton, and accepted it in 1833. His connection with this house continued till 1841, and sometime before that date, he had come to be its head. He returned to the United States in 1841, and established with his two brothers the great China house of A. A. Low and Brothers, retaining their correspondents in China. Under his wise and

able management, this has been for several years past the leading American house in the China trade. Its traffic in all descriptions of Chinese goods is enormous. Ships freighted with the teas, silks, crapes, nankeens, lacquered wares, ginger, porcelain, rice, and mattings of the flowery kingdom, are constantly arriving in New York, and others departing laden with such goods as the Chinese require in their trade. Of late years this trade is not, to the extent it was formerly, the payment of silver on our part, and the delivery of their goods in exchange for that alone. Cotton goods, clocks, ginseng, and a yearly increasing list of our manufactured goods are taken by the Celestials in exchange for their products.

Within a few years past, the Messrs. Low have turned their attention also to the Japan trade, and in the beginning of 1867, Mr. Low having visited San Francisco, sailed thence to Hong Kong and Yokohama, in the first steamship of the China mail line, and after establishing a branch house at the latter point, returned by the overland route to Europe, and thence home.

During the war, few men in this country were as liberal, as patriotic, as judicious in their benefactions, and as wise in their counsels as Mr. Low. He lost heavily through the piratical conduct of the Confederate cruisers, several of his richly laden ships being seized, plundered and burned by those ocean marauders, Semmes and Maffit; but amid all these losses, he was ever ready to aid the Government in every emergency, and to respond promptly to all its demands for counsel and encouragement. In that noble offering of aid by our merchants to the famine stricken operatives of Lancashire, Mr. Low not only contributed largely, but acted as treasurer of the committee, and at no small personal inconvenience, kept its accounts, made its purchases, and transmitted its statements to the committee in England

The New York Chamber of Commerce, the most eminent body of American merchants on this continent, have twice called Mr. Low, the last time by acclamation, to preside over their deliberations for the year, and would have continued him in that high position for a succession of years, but for his absence from the country in 1867. This honor, so freely accorded, shows the estimation in which he is held by those who know him best for sound judgment, remarkable foresight, incorruptible principle, and the highest executive ability. His action, and his words of cheer in the dark hours of our national history, and the critical condition of commercial affairs, and his skill in the management of the grave and often delicate and difficult topics which came up for discussion before the chamber during this eventful period of its history, fully justified the confidence which was reposed in him.

In all matters appertaining to the encouragement of art, literature, and higher education, as well as in all the charitable institutions of the city, State, and nation, Mr. Low's aid is constantly sought, and never in vain in a worthy cause. The institutions of religion find in him a zealous and consistent supporter. In private life, that true manliness of deportment, that scorn of every thing base and mean, and that genial and kindly nature, which have always characterized him in public, find still more adequate and complete expression, and in the bosom of his family, he ever finds his highest happiness.

CORNELIUS VANDERBILT.

THE name of CORNELIUS VANDERBILT is inseparably associated with the commercial history of the country, with the rapid growth and development of our mercantile navy, and, more lately, with our great national railway interests. With a steadiness and rapidity almost romantic he has pushed his way to a position in which he wields an immense influence over the material interests of his native land, and his energy, enterprise, and genius, are recognized the world over. From his ancestors, who were of the good old Holland stock which, over two centuries ago, settled that portion of the New Netherlands now known as New York State, he seems to have inherited the sturdy Knickerbocker habits of industry which have so remarkably characterized his career. His father, whose name was also Cornelius, was a well-to-do farmer on Staten Island, in New York harbor, the island being, at that time, divided into large estates which were generally farmed by their owners, with especial reference to the supply of the city markets. In those days, almost every Islander kept his own boat for the purpose of carrying his farm products to the city; and as the inhabitants increased and more extended facilities for communication became necessary, Mr. Vanderbilt fell into the custom, at times, of conveying to New York those who had no boat of their own. Out of this, and the

demand for some public and regular communication, grew up a ferry, which he established in the form of a "perriauger," which departed for the city every morning and returned every afternoon. To this farmer-ferryman was born, on the 27th day of May, 1794, a son, the subject of this sketch—and, even as a babe, full of voice, will, and muscle. As infancy merged into boyhood, these characteristics developed more distinctly into a restless activity of mind and body which seemed to take a strongly practical turn. Old paths of thought and action, and the teachings of books and schools, were (much to the chagrin of his parents) neglected, and he intuitively sought to draw his knowledge from Nature herself, whose wondrous book, so full of infinite knowledge and suggestions, claimed all his thoughts and time, frequently even to the exclusion of his meals. At the age of sixteen he made his first step into the world of activity and independent life in which he was ultimately to hold so regal a sway. Living upon the Island, and being of necessity much upon the water, he early developed a fondness for that kind of life, as affording the widest scope for his ambition. He, naturally enough, wished to have a sail-boat of his own, and soon made known the desire to his father. Thinking him yet too young and inexperienced to have the sole control of a boat, his father sought to discourage him—but, finally, yielding to his importunate pleadings, he gave a qualified promise to furnish him with the necessary purchase-money, provided he would accomplish a certain amount of work upon the farm. The "stent" given, was no slight affair, as the father probably intended by it to foil his son's project; and the latter soon found that it would require more time than he could well afford to bestow upon it, with his enterprise delayed. The boy's wit, however, did not fail him in this emergency—in his father's absence he summoned to his aid all his

young companions in the neighborhood, with whom he was a favorite, and by their heartily-rendered assistance the allotted task was soon completed. Reporting the successful accomplishment to his mother, he claimed the reward—but was met with dissuasives, for her aversion to the proposed business was equal to that of her husband. Remonstrances, however, were useless—and fearful lest his determined will, if thwarted in this matter, might lead him to the still more to be dreaded alternative of running away to sea—the sum of a hundred dollars was placed in his hands. Quickly hastening to the Port Richmond shore, he at once purchased a boat, which he had previously selected, joyfully took possession of his long coveted prize, and full of brilliant visions of future successes, set sail for home. But, alas, as the little boat, freighted with so many hopes, sped through the waves, it struck on a rock in the kills and the new fledged captain was barely able to run his vessel ashore before she sank. Nothing daunted, however, the boy sought the needed assistance, speedily had the damage repaired, and, in a few hours later, brought his little craft, all safe and sound, alongside the Stapleton dock. He had now, in a measure, cut loose from his father's care; and, as the owner and captain of a boat, had fairly launched upon life's broad sea, as a man of business. Older heads, and older and established reputations were to be competed with—and the boy-captain had the sense to see, and the courage to prove, that he who would make headway in the world's strife, must do so with stout heart and strong arm—working, not waiting, for coy Fortune's gifts. He was no idler—straightway he made vigorous attempts to secure business, and met with extraordinary success. He soon found plenty of remunerative employment in carrying, to and from New York, the workmen employed upon the fortifications then in process of construction, by the General Government, upon

Staten and Long Islands. Amid all his success, however, his manly spirit of independence was not satisfied until, by scrupulous and daily saving, from his first earnings, he was enabled to repay to his mother the hundred dollars she had given him. The boy had, indeed, taken hold of life in earnest—grasping its stern realities with a spirit far beyond his years. Among the self-imposed rules with which he sought to regulate his life, and which serve to show a fixedness of purpose as invariable as the circuit of the sun, was a determination to spend less every week than he earned. This careful management soon produced its legitimate results, and ere long he was enabled to purchase another vessel of larger dimensions, and thus considerably to extend his business. And so he went on, until his eighteenth birthday found him part owner and captain of one of the largest perriaugers in the harbor of New York, and he shortly after became interested in one or two smaller boats engaged in the same business. His life, at this time, was a most active one, spent almost entirely upon the water, carrying freight and passengers, boarding ships, and doing every thing which came to his hand. In addition to all this vigorous day-work, he undertook and continued, through the whole war of 1812, to furnish supplies by night to one of the forts on the Hudson and another at the Narrows. It is said of him that "his energy, skill and daring became so well known, and his word, when he gave it, could be relied upon so implicitly, that Corneile, the boatman, as he was familiarly called, was sought after far and near, when any expedition particularly hazardous or important was to be undertaken. Neither wind, rain, ice, nor snow ever prevented his fulfilling one of his promises. At one time during the war (sometime in September, 1813), the British fleet had endeavored to penetrate the port during a severe southeasterly storm, just before day, but were repulsed

from Sandy Hook. After the cannonading was over, and the garrison at Fort Richmond had returned to quarters, it was highly important that some of the officers should proceed to headquarters to report the occurrence, and obtain the necessary reinforcements against another attack. The storm was a fearful one; still the work must be done, and all felt that there was but one person capable of undertaking it. Accordingly, Vanderbilt was sought out, and upon being asked if he could take the party up, he replied promptly: "*Yes, but I shall have to carry them under water part of the way!*" They went with him, and when they landed at Coffee-House slip there was not a dry thread in the party. The next day the garrison was reinforced.

Vanderbilt also showed, in these earlier days, what he has frequently exemplified in his later life, that he was very tenacious of his rights, and determined that no one should infringe them. On one occasion, during the same war, while on his way to the city with a load of soldiers from the forts at the Narrows, he was hailed by a boat coming out from the shore, near the Quarantine. Seeing an officer on board, young Vanderbilt allowed it to approach him; but as it came nearer, he saw that it belonged to one of his leading competitors, and that the owner himself was with the officer. Still he awaited their approach, preparing to defend himself in case of any unauthorized interference. No sooner, however, were they alongside of his boat, than the officer jumped on board, and ordered the soldiers ashore with him in the other boat, for inspection, etc. Young Vanderbilt, seeing that the whole affair was a trick to transfer his passengers to his competitor, at once told the officer that the men should not move, that his order should not be obeyed. The military man, almost bursting with rage, hastily drew his sword, as if about to avenge his insulted dignity, when

young Vanderbilt quickly brought him, sword and all, to the deck. It did not take him many minutes more to rid himself of the officer and his companion, and quickly getting under way again, his soldiers were soon landed, without further molestation, at the Whitehall dock."

These anecdotes serve to illustrate the character of the man. By this time young Vanderbilt's labors had placed him in a position where he could reasonably entertain the prospect of maintaining a family and home of his own, and, on the 19th of December, 1813, he married Miss Sophie Johnson, of Port Richmond, Staten Island, and the next year took up his residence at New York. About the same time he became the master and owner of the new perriauger "Dorad," which was at that time the largest and finest craft of that kind in the harbor of New York; and, in the summer of 1815, he built, in connection with his brother-in-law, De Forest, a schooner named the "Charlotte," which was remarkably large for her day, and which, under command of De Forest, was profitably employed as a lighter, in carrying freights between numerous home ports. Thus, up to the year 1817, with varied experience but unvarying success, Mr. Vanderbilt continued in this business, improving the construction of vessels and adding to his reputation among nautical men, and with such profit that, in the four years preceding his twenty-third birthday, he had laid up the snug little sum of $9000—hard won earnings. Yet his ambition was by no means satisfied. His comprehensive mind, ever on the alert to catch any thing new or valuable pertaining to his chosen profession, saw at an early date the inestimable advantages which would ultimately accrue to the interests of commerce from the use of steam, which had but recently formed a new application to the purposes of navigation. Happening to become acquainted with Thomas Gibbons,

of New Jersey, a large capitalist, then extensively interested in the transportation of passengers between New York and Philadelphia, he received from him an offer of the captaincy of a little steamboat, at a salary of one thousand dollars per year. This, to a man who had always been his own master, and who was then engaged in sufficiently lucrative business, presented but few inducements. But Vanderbilt's prophetic ken anticipated the triumphs of steam, and he had resolved to participate in, if not direct them. He therefore accepted the proffer, and assumed the command, in the fall of 1817, of a little steamer, so small, that its owner soon re-christened it as "The Mouse of the Mountain." In a few months he was promoted to the "Bellona," a much larger boat, just ready for her trial trip, and employed on the Philadelphia line, carrying passengers between New York and New Brunswick, to which place (after a temporary few months' stay at Elizabethport), convenience dictated the removal of his family residence. At that time, passengers *en route* for Philadelphia, stopped at New Brunswick over night, taking early stage next morning to Trenton, and thence boat to Philadelphia. The stage-house at which travellers stopped over night, was the property of Gibbons, whose management of it proved unfortunate, and who was, therefore, induced to offer it, rent free, to his new captain, shortly after his removal to New Brunswick, if he would, in addition to his other duties, take charge of it—its proper keeping being, of course, an indispensable condition to the prosperity of the whole route. Vanderbilt accepted the proposition, and, during the remainder of his business connection with Mr. Gibbons, conducted it so successfully that it became a source of considerable profit. In 1827, he hired of Mr. Gibbons the New York and Elizabethport Ferry, which, under two successive leases of seven years each, he managed so well that it proved very profitable, although pre-

viously it had been unremunerative. Twelve years had elapsed since he had entered Mr. Gibbons's employ; and, during that time, his faithfulness, care, and persevering industry had so advanced the prosperity of the line that it was now netting, annually, the sum of nearly $40,000. Under his supervision, each new boat added to the line had been made better and fleeter than its predecessor, and his keen and fertile intellect was quick to make every new circumstance subservient to the interests of his employer and the improvement of steam navigation.

To understand some of the difficulties with which Vanderbilt was surrounded, at the time he first became captain of the Bellona, we must recall the early history of steam navigation. It will be remembered that, in 1798, an act was passed by the Legislature of New York, repealing a previous act, and transferring to Mr. Livingston, the exclusive privilege of navigating the waters of the State by steam. This act was from time to time continued, and Fulton was finally included in its provisions. In 1807, after the trial trip of the Clermont, the Legislature, by another act, extended this privilege, and in the following year, subjected any vessel, propelled by steam, to forfeiture, which should enter the waters of the State without the license of those grantees. These acts were in force when Vanderbilt entered the employ of Mr. Gibbons, and the Philadelphia line violated the privilege thus granted, in case the boats stopped at the city of New York; and hence, for a long time, whenever Vanderbilt ran a steamer in on the New York side of the river, as he was instructed by the owner to do, he was arrested, if he could be found. As an expedient to avoid arrest, he taught a lady how to steer the boat, and when it neared the New York dock, he would turn it over to her charge, and disappear himself; so that the officers were fre-

quently compelled to return their writs against him *non est.* At this time, it will also be remembered, the New York Court of Errors had pronounced these acts constitutional; the New Jersey Legislature had passed retaliatory acts, and a suit against Gibbons was in progress in the United States Court. To make this line prosperous, under such difficulties, and against such opposition, was, of course, no ordinary task; still it was at once accomplished, as we have stated. At length, and in 1824, the Gibbons's case was decided, Chief Justice Marshall delivering the opinion of the Court, to the effect, that, under the Constitution of the United States, no State could grant an exclusive right of navigation, by steam or otherwise, on any of the principal rivers of the country; and, as a consequence, navigation of the Hudson, and elsewhere, became free to all. With this obstacle removed, Vanderbilt went to work with renewed vigor, steadily pushing forward his employer's enterprise, until it produced the remarkable revenue noted above.

In 1829, Vanderbilt determined to commence business again on his own account, but met with the most strenuous objections, and the most liberal inducements—even to the offer of the ownership of the entire Philadelphia route, on almost his own terms—from Gibbons, who confessed his inability to run the line without him. But these offers were firmly yet kindly put aside, and Gibbons, finding the life of his enterprise had gone, shortly after sold out the entire business. Once again Vanderbilt was his own master, and possessed such an intimate knowledge of the details and practical management of steam navigation, as placed him in a most favorable position for further usefulness and success. The next twenty years of his life we must sketch rapidly. Applying to his work, the same wisdom and energy which he had ever shown, he built, during this period, a very large number of steamboats, and established

steamboat lines on the Hudson, the Sound and elsewhere. His plan was to build better and faster boats, than those of his competitors, and to run them at the lowest paying rates. He was thus enabled, by furnishing passengers with the best and cheapest accommodations, to distance the corporations and companies, whose monopoly of the carrying trade had hitherto made travelling too expensive to be enjoyed by the many. It cannot be claimed, that in every act, he sought the public's welfare, yet the great result of his "opposition" lines has been decidedly beneficial to the community, for commercial growth and rivalry are inseparable, and competition is, proverbially, the life of healthy trade. Meantime, the gold of California had been discovered, and was drawing an immense rush of trade thitherward. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company began to run its steamers in 1848, and in 1849 the Panama railroad was surveyed and commenced. The same year, we find Mr. Vanderbilt, under a charter obtained from the Nicarauguan government, for a ship-canal and transit company, seeking another transit route, in connection with which he could establish a competing line between New York and the "golden land." This charter was subsequently enlarged by the grant of an exclusive right to transport passengers and freight between the two oceans, by means of a railroad, steamboats, or otherwise, and separating the transit grant from the canal grant. In 1850, Mr. Vanderbilt built the Prometheus, and, in her, visited Nicaragua for the purpose of personally exploring the country, and satisfying himself as to the practicability of the route. The harbor of San Juan del Sur, was fixed upon as the Pacific port—a little steamboat built, under his personal inspection, to run up the San Juan river—and finally, in the face of many obstacles, a semi-monthly line to California, *via* Nicaragua, was opened in July, 1851, and speedily became the favorite, as well as the

cheapest route to San Francisco. In January, 1853, Vanderbilt sold his many and large steamers, on both sides, to the Transit Company, acting as their agent for several months—and then his connection with it ceased, until he became its president in January 1856. During the invasion of Nicaragua by "Filibuster Walker," that general, to whom Vanderbilt had refused transportation for his men and munitions, issued a decree (February, 1856,) annulling all grants to the company, as well as its act of incorporation; and, when the long series of plots and counter-plots to which this gave rise were settled, a sand-bar was found to have formed at the mouth of the San Juan, making it practically useless. Mr. Vanderbilt had become a man of great wealth, and, in 1853, he conceived the novel, and, in some respects, grand design of making the tour of Europe, with his family, in a fine, large steamship of his own.

For a single individual, without rank, prestige, or national authority, to build, equip, and man a noble specimen of naval architecture, and to maintain it before all the courts of Europe, with dignity and style, was an extremely suggestive illustration to the Old World, of what the energies of man may accomplish in this new land, where they are uncramped by oppressive social institutions, or absurd social traditions. Cornelius Vanderbilt is a natural, legitimate product of America. With us, all citizens have full permission to run the race in which he has gained such large prizes, while in other countries, they are trammelled by a thousand restrictions.

Accordingly, a new vessel, called "The North Star," was built, as all his vessels are, under his own supervision, in a very complete manner, perfect in all its departments, and splendidly fitted up with all that could tend to gratify or please, and was the first steamer fitted with a beam engine, that ever attempted to cross the Atlantic.

On Friday, the 11th of May, 1855, the commodore and his party set sail. In almost every country visited they were received by all the authorities with great cordiality, as well as great attention. At Southampton, the North Star formed the topic of conversation in all circles, and the party was honored with a splendid banquet, at which about two hundred persons sat down. When in Russia, the Grand Duke Constantine and the chief admiral of the Russian navy visited the ship. The former solicited and obtained permission to take drafts of it, which duty was ably performed by a corps of Russian engineers. In Constantinople, in Gibraltar, and Malta, the authorities were also very cordial and polite. But in Leghorn (under the government of Austria) the vessel was subjected to constant surveillance, guard boats patrolling about her day and night—the authorities not being able to believe that the expedition was one of pleasure, but imagining that the steamer was loaded with munitions and arms for insurrectionary purposes. Thus, after a very charming and delightful excursion of four months, they returned home, reaching New York, September 23d, 1853, having sailed a distance of fifteen thousand miles. This certainly was an expedition worthy and characteristic of the man who undertook it, and met with that decided success which his efforts ever seem to insure.

Mr. Vanderbilt's observations, while abroad, satisfied him of the necessity of largely increasing the facilities of communication between Europe and America; and, soon after his return, he made an offer to the Postmaster-General to run a semi-monthly line to England, alternating with the Collins line, carrying the mails on the voyage out and home for fifteen thousand dollars. The Cunard line was at that time withdrawn from the mail service on account of the Crimean war, and his plan, therefore, was to provide for weekly departures, filling up

those thus left vacant. This proposition, however, was not accepted; but unwilling to abandon the idea, on the 21st of April, 1858, he established an independent line between New York and Havre. For this purpose he built several new steamships, and among them the Ariel, and finally the Vanderbilt, and the line was kept up with great spirit and success. Subsequent to the building of the Vanderbilt, there was an exciting contest of speed between the boats of the different lines. The Arabia and Persia, of the Cunard, the Baltic and Atlantic, of the Collins, and the Vanderbilt of the independent line, were the competitors. Great interest was taken in the contest, as all will remember, but the Vanderbilt came out victorious, making the shortest time ever made by any European or American steamer.

The subsequent history of this vessel, and the use which has since been made of it, are well known. In the spring of 1862, when the administration needed, immediately, large additions to its navy, to aid in carrying on its military operations (an occasion which many were eager to turn to their own advantage, at their country's expense), Commodore Vanderbilt made free gift of this splendid ship, which had cost $800,000, to the Government. For this magnificent act of patriotism he received, in January, 1864, a resolution of thanks passed by Congress, and approved by the President, and a gold medal, a duplicate copy of which was also made and deposited for preservation in the library of Congress.

Commodore Vanderbilt (he was long since given the title of commodore by acclamation, and as the creator and manager of so large a fleet, he surely merited it) has, during his long career of activity, built and owned exclusively himself, upward of one hundred steamboats and ships—none of which have been lost by accident. He had extensive machine-shops, where the

machinery was made according to his own ideas, and his vessels were almost invariably constructed by days' work, under his constant supervision and from plans entirely his own. It was his practice, also, to employ the most deserving and trustworthy commanders, and never to insure a vessel or cargo of any kind, believing that "good vessels and good commanders are the best kind of insurance;" and also, that "if corporations could make money in the insurance business he could."

It is now nearly ten years since Commodore Vanderbilt began to withdraw gradually from his marine enterprises, and to concentrate his energies and his vast capital and influence upon railways, and his movements have been attended with their usual success. He began with the Harlem Railroad, which had been the football of the speculators and unfortunate in all its management. Its stock had ranged from forty to seventy dollars the share. He obtained a controlling interest in it, equipped it anew, and made it one of the best as it had previously been one of the poorest roads leaving New York. The stock went up to one hundred and seventy-five and even higher. Next he obtained control of the Hudson River Road, and reformed its management, and then stretched out his hand and grasped the New York Central. His management was so successful that he met with little or no opposition, when he determined to consolidate the New York Central and Hudson River in one gigantic corporation, and lease the Harlem, which he had now extended to Vermont, to the new corporation. The stock of this mammoth corporation was largely watered, but under his efficient management it has paid liberal dividends. He has bought up all the branches and collateral roads which could be bought or leased, to serve as feeders for his great line. At one time he had almost secured control of the Erie Railway also (it might have been better for the stockholders if he had suc

ceeded); but the cage of unclean birds which in the spring of 1872 were ousted from it, by their sharp practices kept him out, though not without heavy expense to themselves. He next turned his attention to perfecting his connection with the Pacific Railways, and now controls not only the Lake Shore, Southern Michigan, Chicago and Rock Island, and Chicago and Northwestern, but numerous other connecting roads, and runs his palace cars without change from New York city to the Golden Gate. His only formidable competitor now for the monarchy of the railroad system of the United States is Col. Thomas A. Scott, the Pennsylvania Railroad king. Scott has youth in his favor, but the old commodore is tough, and carries his seventy-eight years as jauntily as if they were not half that number. He controls to-day, through himself and members of his family, railway property of the value of nearly, and perhaps quite, three hundred millions of dollars. His personal wealth is vast. He is unquestionably one of the three richest men in America, the other two being William B. Astor and Alexander T. Stewart, and it is doubtful whether either could tell the amount of their property within ten millions. Commodore Vanderbilt makes no pretensions of philanthropy. He is not even for his means a large or liberal giver, yet, as we have seen, he sometimes gives in a princely way. He became very much interested four or five years ago in the efforts of Rev. Dr. Deems to establish a "church for strangers" in New York, and finding that the University Place Church was for sale, a fine and substantial edifice, he bought it, and presented it to Dr. Deems. He has, we are glad to say been ever since a frequent attendant on the Doctor's ministrations.

Yet amidst his close and continued application to the business of life, the kindly feelings of childhood have remained unchanged. The eagerness with which he has anticipated

every desire of an aged mother, is only an evidence of the heart within him. He was as devoted to her in manhood, as she to him in early youth. The pretty home-like cottage constructed for her under his eye, and in accordance with the taste of both, surrounded by luxuriant vines and evergreens, was a continual joy to her during her life. There, near her old home, and overlooking the water, the scene of his early exploits, she happily lived, tenderly cared for, and, only a few years since, as happily and peacefully died. How consistent with all his conduct toward her was the thoughtfulness which prompted him, upon returning from his triumphal tour of Europe, to stop the steamer in passing up the bay, and give that mother his first greetings, and receive her welcome home. Few, as they read, at that time, the newspaper accounts of his arrival, could have failed to notice, among the more exciting items, the statement of this simple fact, and to feel that it was an honor to the son as well as to the mother.

The same kindliness of feeling he has always exhibited in every other position in life. Deceit and underhand dealing he has ever quickly detected and thoroughly hated, but frankness and honesty of speech and act have been sure to find a ready and kind response. During all his contests with men, he had exemplified the truth of this, ever being ready to act with the greatest generosity, when thus approached. A certain captain, interested in a line of boats to Hartford, took steps which Vanderbilt considered dishonorable, to injure his line of boats to the same place, and therefore Vanderbilt determined to run him off, and did it. About that time Captain Brooks, who is an intimate friend of the commodore, met the defeated party and asked him how he got on. "Why, I have put my hand in Vanderbilt's mouth, and of course I must give up," he replied. "But," said Brooks, "go and see him, and if you are

frank to him, he will be generous to you." "Go!" said he, "he would not see me." Yet afterwards he concluded to go, and sure enough, he came back not only with the difficulty healed, but with obligations conferred, which he will very long remember.

Six feet in height, with a large strong frame, a bright clear expressive eye, thin white hair, and ruddy complexion, Mr. Vanderbilt combines in his temperament a perfect blending of the best vital motive and mental characteristics. His will, self-reliance and ambition to achieve success are immense, while integrity, self-respect and kindness of heart are not less strongly marked. Socially, he is one of the most affectionate of men. He is quick to read the characters and motives of others; forms his own judgments with intuitive quickness and correctness; executes his plans with rapidity and a consciousness of self-power. With such mental and vital characteristics, with or without education, the "Commodore" would, almost inevitably, have been at the head of any calling or profession which he might have adopted. Nature created him for a leader.

THOMAS ALEXANDER SCOTT,

RAILWAY KING.

IT is greatly to the honor of most of our leading business men, as well as of some of our statesmen, that they are emphatically self-made men. Unfavored by fortune in their youthful days, struggling, perhaps, with gaunt penury, and while thirsting for knowledge as ravenously as the traveller in the desert thirsts for the cooling spring, they have been denied the opportunity to enter its halls and slake that thirst, and have been detained at the bench, the counter, or the manufactory, struggling wearily for a bare pittance for their own needs, or the support of those dear to them. If there is any one person endowed with all his natural faculties, who is excusable for not endeavoring to acquire a good and thorough education, that person is the child, who, after toiling through the long day to and even beyond his strength, finds that his only opportunity of improvement is in the evening hours. The more honor then would we bestow on the young clerk, mechanic or machinist, who, notwithstanding intense weariness of body, seeks most zealously for the opportunities of improvement. And when a lad thus struggles and fights his way up through difficulties which would appal an ordinary mind, and takes his position among the world's great men, he deserves to be reckoned as a hero. It is in this class that Colonel Thomas A. Scott has won and maintained his position.

THOMAS ALEXANDER SCOTT was born in the village of Loudon, Franklin county, Pennsylvania, December 28th, 1824. Of his early childhood we know little. It must have been one of poverty and narrowness, for in a large family, of which he was one of the youngest children, he attended the village school for but a short time, and had but a single teacher, Robert Kirby, of Loudon. His father died when he was but ten years of age, and even before that time he had been striving to earn a living as clerk in a little country store. At his father's death his home was broken up, and he went to reside with an elder married sister, near Waynesborough, Franklin county, whose husband had a small store, in which Thomas was employed for eighteen months. From thence he went for a short time to Bridgeport, in the same county, where an elder brother was engaged in trade. A few months later he had obtained a situation with a good firm in Mercersburg. When he was fourteen years old, another brother-in-law who had been appointed collector of tolls on the State road at Columbia, sent for him to be his clerk, and a year or two after he became a clerk in the extensive warehouse and commission establishment of the Messrs. Leech, of Columbia, where he remained until 1847. During all these thirteen or fourteen years, he had sought in every way possible to train himself for a business life. Intensely fond of study, he yet subordinated his study to his employer's interests, and did everything with an order, system and judgment which would have been highly creditable to a man of twice his years. Everywhere his quickness and energy, his correctness, ability and integrity inspired all who had to do with him with confidence in his business character and uprightness. In 1847, he came to Philadelphia as chief clerk under A. Boyd Cummings, collector of tolls at the eastern end of the public works. He did not become connected with the Pennsylvania Central Rail

road until 1850, when he was appointed General Agent of their Mountain or Eastern Division at Duncanville. When the Western Division was opened he was transferred to that, and remained there until the health of General Lombaert, the Superintendent of the road, failed, when he was called to take his place. In 1860, on the death of the Hon. William B. Foster, Vice-President of the road, Mr. Scott was elected to that position, and it was from that time that the Pennsylvania Central railroad began to comprehend its position and facilities as a great trunk road. The executive ability, order, method and enterprize of the new Vice-President had here for the first time their legitimate field of exercise, and the road began at once to take its appropriate place as one of the four great highways which were competing for the traffic of the continent.

But there was higher work than this for Mr. Scott to undertake. The civil war had commenced, and our War Department was inadequate with its antiquated and contracted machinery to manage the affairs of an army of more than a million men scattered over half a continent. Mr. Scott's executive ability was already known at Washington, and he was called thither as Assistant Secretary of War, having special charge of the transportation of troops, and their movement from one section of the country to another. He was at one time directed by the President to take possession of all the railroad lines of the Central States, and combine them into one harmonious whole, so as to render the Government service both rapid and certain. No other man had ever attempted so extensive a control of railroads as this, and it is safe to say, that there were not half-a-dozen men in the country who could have done it successfully. The late Secretary of War, Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, was one of the most tireless workers who ever occupied that position, and he had first and last at least a dozen assistants, all of them men of

remarkable business capacity, but most of them broke down under the tremendous strain of the work which the war produced. Mr. Stanton was accustomed to say, that the only two assistants he ever had whom he could not kill with over-work, were Thomas A. Scott and Charles A. Dana.

Returning to his work as Vice-President of the Pennsylvania Central, Colonel Scott (he had received a staff commission from the War Department) began at once to develop the vast capacity for work there was in him, and while most men would have found the management of that great road and its connections with the West sufficient to occupy all their time and thoughts, to him it was mere play. He accepted the Presidency of the "Pennsylvania Company," the corporation by which the entire system of roads west of Pittsburgh, which are owned or leased by the Pennsylvania Central, is operated, and in that capacity he controls and manages over 4000 miles of railroad. He took the Presidency of the Union Pacific Railway, when its affairs were in a condition of great confusion, and in a few short months brought them out into an assured success. He is the right arm and successful manager of the "Southern Railway Security Company," in which, profiting by his experience during the war, he has brought into one orderly and harmonious system, and under one general control, the larger part of the Southern railroads, greatly to their advantage and that of the public. He has taken an interest as counsellor and manager in many other great railway enterprises, among which we may name the Kansas Pacific, the Denver Pacific, the Denver and Rio Grande Narrow Gauge, the Northern Pacific, the Texas Pacific, and other railways, including several on the Pacific coast.

There must be a limit somewhere to the business capacity of even a man of Colonel Scott's comprehensive and methodical

mind. We do not know that he has reached or even approached that limit, but when a man has the care of some ten thousand miles of railway on his mind, when it depends upon his movements whether a capital of four hundred or five hundred millions of dollars shall prove profitable or unprofitable, it certainly behooves that man to keep his head "level." Much may be accomplished, and undoubtedly in his case much *is* accomplished, by the rare power he possesses of dismissing at will all care and anxiety from his mind. In his "off" hours, no man is more blithe, gay and hearty than he. To see him on such occasions you would hardly suppose that anything more serious than the tie of his cravat or the fit of his gloves ever occupied his mind; but there comes a time sooner or later, when the spectre of brooding thought will not down at a man's bidding; when he cannot shake off care so easily, and then the overwrought brain revenges itself for its excessive toil, and the man must rest or die. From such a fate, we trust, this noble-hearted and greatly gifted son of Pennsylvania may long be spared, to be a blessing not only to the State but to the nation.

Colonel Scott is not an active politician, and, indeed, cares but little for political questions. He has warm friends in both parties, but has generally when voting at all voted with the Republicans. In the multiplicity of names mentioned for the Presidency, at a time of such general political upheaval, it is not surprising that a man of his rare executive ability should have been thought of, but he himself has no aspirations in that direction. It is said that some months ago some anxious politicians approached him on the subject, and he replied, with a merry twinkle of his eye, and an evident allusion to his well-known propensity to taking long leases on every railroad within his reach: "No, gentlemen, I cannot afford it; time is altogether too short. If I could have a *ninety-nine years' lease*, I might think of it."

CYRUS WEST FIELD,

THE FOUNDER OF ATLANTIC TELEGRAPHY.

THE FIELD family is one of those instances of which there are several in our national history, in which the greater part of the children of a large family springing from a respectable, but not specially eminent ancestry, attain high distinction either in kindred or diverse pursuits. The Edwards, the Dwight and the Woolsey families in various degrees belong to this class; its most conspicuous example is "the Beecher family;" but the descendants of Rev. David Dudley Field, D. D., who died at Stockbridge, Massachusetts, in 1867, are hardly less conspicuous though in more varied careers. Dr. Field had ten children, of whom nine grew up to maturity, viz.: seven sons and two daughters. Of the seven sons, David Dudley has attained high distinction and great wealth as a jurist, in New York City; Timothy B. was a naval officer of great promise, but was lost at sea in 1836; Matthew D., a manufacturer and civil engineer, has a high reputation in his profession, and has been a State Senator in Massachusetts; Jonathan E., was a lawyer of great ability, several times a member of the Massachusetts Senate, and once or twice President of that body; Stephen J., also a lawyer, formerly Chief Justice of California, is now one of the Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States; of Cyrus W. we shall have more to say. Rev. Henry M., D.D., is an eloquent preacher and writer, and

for some years past has been editor and proprietor of the *New York Evangelist*, a very popular and widely circulated Presbyterian journal. The two daughters were ladies of high intellectual ability. Both were married, the elder to a missionary, with whom she spent some years in missionary labors in Syria. Several of Dr. Field's grandchildren have also achieved distinction.

Cyrus West Field was born in Stockbridge, Massachusetts, November 30th, 1819. He received a very thorough English and academical education, and at the age of fifteen went to New York as clerk in a mercantile house. After several years' experience in that capacity, he entered the house as partner, and finally became principal. He was very successful, and in 1853, at the age of thirty-four, retired from business with an ample fortune. He spent six or eight months in travel in South America, and soon after his return was approached by Mr. F. N. Gisborne, Engineer and Telegraph operator, and the founder and chief promoter of the Electric Telegraphic Company, an organization which had attempted the construction of a telegraphic line from New Brunswick to St. John's, Newfoundland, there to connect with a line of steamers to the Irish coast. This company had become bankrupt before the completion of their enterprize, and Mr. Gisborne was anxious to have their charter taken up by New York capitalists. Mr. Matthew D. Field, a brother of Cyrus, and an engineer by profession, had formed Mr. Gisborne's acquaintance, and became favorably impressed with his project, and he introduced him to his brother. Mr. Field was at first averse to the undertaking, but examining it carefully, and becoming impressed with the feasibility of carrying a telegraphic wire across the Atlantic from St. John's, he began to give it more attention. He wrote at once to Lieutenant Maury, then at the head of the Naval Observatory at Washington, and author

of a work on "The Physical Geography of the Sea," inquiring of him concerning the practicability of carrying an insulated wire or wires across the ocean, *i. e.*, whether there were any insurmountable physical difficulties in the ocean bed. At the same time he addressed a letter to Professor S. F. B. Morse (lately deceased) inquiring as to the possibility of transmitting electro-magnetic signals to such a distance through the ocean. Lieutenant Maury replied, transmitting a report he had just made to the Secretary of the Navy of Lieutenant Berryman's continuous soundings across the ocean, at the very points between which Mr. Field had thought the cable should be laid, showing that there was an oceanic plateau crossing the ocean, whose depth nowhere exceeded two miles, and whose surface, composed of the *débris* of microscopic shells unmixed with sand or gravel, was almost as level as a western prairie. Professor Morse came to visit Mr. Field, and demonstrated the feasibility of the transmission of magnetic signals through the ocean to much greater distances. Having thus satisfied himself of the practicability of the enterprise, Mr. Field next undertoook to enlist several capitalists in it, and succeeded in persuading Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts, and Chandler White to join him in forming a company to undertake the work. Subsequently Professor Morse, Wilson G. Hunt, and an English Telegraphic Engineer, Mr. John W. Brett, took some share in the enterprise. The associates visited Newfoundland, and procured from the provincial legislature a new and very favorable charter; bought up the property of the old Electric Telegraphic Company, and paid its debts; constructed nearly 550 miles of road and telegrapic lines from New Brunswick to Newfoundland, and at their direction Mr. Field visited England, and ordered a telegraphic cable to cross the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and this being lost, went again and procured another, which was successfully laid. At the end of

two years, and with an expenditure of about a million of dollars, nearly all of which had come from their own pockets, the associates had reached Newfoundland, and were ready for another step in advance. Mr. Field again visited England, empowered either to obtain additional subscriptions to the New York, Newfoundland and London Telegraph Company, organized by himself and his associates two years before, or to found a new company to lay the cable alone. The latter alternative was adopted, a company organized with guaranties from the British Government, and its capital stock fixed at 350,000*l.*,=$1,750,000. Mr. Field took 88,000*l.*,=$440,000 of this stock himself, but subsequently disposed of $135,000 of it here. The cable was made by Glass, Elliot & Co. The first attempt to lay it was made in 1857. The United Steamships Niagara and Susquehanna, and the British Steamships Agamemnon and Gorgon performing the work under the direction of Mr. Field and his associates. The cable broke when three hundred and thirty-five miles had been laid, in consequence of the clumsiness of the paying-out machine. The ships returned to England and landed the remainder of the cable, and Mr. Field returned to the United States, to find that in the financial panic nearly his entire fortune had been swept away. The next year the effort to lay it was made again, and after two or three failures, proved successful so far that the cable was laid, and imperfect communication kept up between the shores of the Atlantic for nearly a month, when it gave out entirely. Meantime Mr. Field had received a succession of ovations, one of them so glowing that it set on fire the cupola and roof the City Hall in New York, and came very near destroying the whole of the vast building. But the sudden news on the 5th of September, 1858, that "the Atlantic Telegraph was dead," would have killed a man less sanguine and resolute. Mr. Field, however, went to England

repeatedly, and kept the matter in agitation, and under the encouragement of added subsidies from the British Government, and the promise of guaranties if it should be made to write, succeeded in getting again under way. A new company was formed, called the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company, in which Messrs. Glass, Elliot & Co., the manufacturers of the cable, Thomas Brassey and others, were large stockholders; the Great Eastern secured to lay the cable, and in the summer of 1865 the effort was made again with a greatly improved cable. Between twelve and thirteen hundred miles were laid, not without some slight accidents, when once more the cable was broken by being fouled under the bow of the Great Eastern. For nine days the persevering directors and crew grappled for the lost cable; three times they brought it up for a mile or more from the bottom (here two and a half miles in depth), but each time their apparatus gave way under the terrible strain, and finally, marking carefully its location with buoys, they left it. Not yet, however, did the brave Field give up to despair. Again he crossed the ocean, and after trying several other plans organized a fourth company, in which the previous companies became stockholders, with three million dollars capital, had another cable made, and in the summer of 1866 it was laid, and has proved a complete success from that time to the present. More than this; the same expedition which laid this grappled for, and brought to the surface the end of the cable of 1865, spliced it, and successfully completed that also. In 1869, a third cable was laid by a French company, which has since passed into the hands of the London company, and although we believe but two of the three are now working successfully, yet there is very little danger now of a loss of our communication with Europe by telegraph, especially as one or two other lines are in progress

Mr. Field's indefatigable zeal and persistency in thus struggling through thirteen years of discouragement and disaster to a final triumph, and his courage, which rose higher with each failure, are worthy of all praise.

With his great enterprize, at last an assured success, and his outlays so long unproductive, at last yielding their golden harvest, it would seem that he would have been content to rest upon his laurels; but we notice that beside taking an interest in most of the telegraphic cables which connect the great divisions of the American continent and the adjacent islands, he led the way a few months' since in an application to Congress for a charter for a Telegraphic Cable Company to cross the Pacific from San Francisco to Japan, taking the Sandwich Islands as a half-way house, and thus solving the problem of the Great English poet and dramatist of "Putting a girdle round the earth in forty minutes." We have not yet heard that the company is fully organized, or the cable in process of manufacture, but just as sure as Cyrus W. Field has a controlling interest in it, it is bound to be carried through triumphantly.

HON. EZRA CORNELL.

AMONG the names of the great benefactors of education, that of EZRA CORNELL must always occupy a place in the front rank. Very few men living or dead have contributed so largely to the diffusion of knowledge among men, as this plain, practical business man. Though deprived of the advantages of collegiate training in early life, he has sought to give to all classes the boon of a higher education; and he has done this so wisely and well, that numberless generations to come will rise up and bless him for it.

EZRA CORNELL was born at Westchester Landing, Westchester county, New York, January 11th, 1807. His parents were members of the Society of Friends. His father was by trade a potter, and carried on the business extensively, at one time, in Tarrytown, afterward at English Neighborhood, New Jersey. Young Cornell made himself useful in his father's shop in attending to customers and delivering ware.

In 1819, his father removed to De Ruyter, Madison county, New York, where he again established a pottery, and with the assistance of Ezra and a younger son conducted a farm.

The advantages for early scholastic training which Mr. Cornell enjoyed were few, yet, such as they were, he eagerly availed himself of them. At De Ruyter, his father taught a district school during the winter terms, which he attended.

The last year of his "schooling," being then about seventeen years of age, he obtained, as it were, by purchase, he and his brother agreeing to clear four acres of wood-land in time to plant corn in the following spring. This was done, and an excellent crop of corn secured, without the aid of a day's labor from other sources. Notwithstanding his limited facilities for tuition, Ezra made considerable advancement in the various branches of common-school learning, and was even advised to teach on his own account. This advice he did not see fit to follow, but turned his attention to farming. In 1825, an incident occurred which called out his great natural mechanical ability. His father hired a carpenter to build a shop, and Ezra obtained permission to assist in preparing the frame. While the work was in progress, he pointed out to the carpenter an error in the laying out of one of the corner posts, and at the risk of a flogging, convinced him of his mistake. Soon afterward his father requested him to build a dwelling-house, and though he had never seen a book on architecture, taking the house of a neighbor as his model, he went bravely at it, and after weeks of persevering effort, although annoyed and thwarted by officious and meddlesome persons, who were fearful that he would succeed, yet he finally triumphed in the construction of a substantial and comfortable house, into which his father removed. The execution of this task obtained for him the admiration of his neighbors, and a good knowledge of carpentry. In 1826, we find the elder son leaving his father's house to seek his fortune among strangers. During the next year he found employment at Homer, Cortland county, in building wool-carding machines. In the spring of 1828, he went to Ithaca, and engaged with a Mr. Eddy to work in the machine shop of his cotton factory one year, at eight dollars per month and his board. His services were evidently appreciated, as he says himself: "I had

worked six months on this contract, when Mr. Eddy surprised me one morning by saying to me that he thought I was not getting wages enough, and that he had made up his mind to pay me twelve dollars per month the balance of the year. I thanked him and continued my labors. At the end of the year, I had credit for six months, at eight dollars per month, and seven months, at twelve dollars per month, having gained one month during the year by overwork. Twelve hours were credited as a day's work, and I have found no day since that time, which has not demanded twelve hours' work from me."

In 1829, the success gained by him in repairing a flouring-mill at Fall Creek, Ithaca, led to his effecting an engagement with the proprietor of the mill to take charge of it, at four hundred dollars a year. He remained in this position ten years, during which period he built a new flouring-mill, containing eight runs of stones. This latter mill he worked two years, turning out four hundred barrels of flour per day, during the fall or flouring season, and employing only one miller. He had so admirably adjusted the mechanism of this mill, that manual labor was only required to take the flour from the mill.

The term of his engagement having expired, he next engaged in business of an agricultural nature, conducting it partly in Maine, and partly in Georgia. His brother was associated in this business. Their plan was to spend the summer in Maine, and the winter in Georgia. These operations led to an acquaintance which terminated in his becoming interested in rendering available the magnetic telegraph, for the purpose of communication between distant places.

Mr. Cornell's history, in connection with the early introduction of telegraphing, is highly interesting. During the winter of 1842 and 1843, while in Georgia, he conceived a plan for employing the State prison convicts of Georgia in the manufacture

of agricultural implements; and after thoroughly examining its feasibility, went to Maine for the purpose of settling some unfinished business, preparatory to entering upon the execution of his project. While in Maine, he called upon Mr. F. O. J. Smith, then editor of the Portland "*Farmer*." He was informed by Mr. Smith, that Congress had appropriated thirty thousand dollars toward building a telegraph, under the direction of Professor Morse, between Baltimore and Washington, and that he (Smith) had taken the contract to lay the pipe in which the telegraphic cable was to be enclosed, and he was to receive one hundred dollars a mile for the work. Mr. Smith also informed Mr. Cornell that, after a careful examination, he had found that he would lose money by the job, and, at the same time, showed him a piece of the pipe, and explained the manner of its construction, the depth to which it was to be laid, and the difficulties which he expected to encounter in carrying out the design. Mr. Cornell, at this same interview, after the brief explanation which Mr. Smith had given, told him that, in his opinion, the pipe could be laid by machinery at a much less expense than one hundred dollars a mile, and it would be, in the main, a profitable operation. At the same time, he sketched on paper the plan of a machine which he thought practicable. This led to the engagement of Mr. Cornell by Mr. Smith, to make such a machine. And he immediately went to work and made patterns for its construction. While the machine was being made, Mr. Cornell went to Augusta, Maine, and settled up his business, and then returned to Portland and completed the pipe machine. Professor Morse was notified, by Mr. Smith, in regard to the machine, and went to Portland to see it tried. The trial proved a success. Mr. Cornell was employed to take charge of laying the pipe. Under his hands the work advanced rapidly, and he had laid ten miles or more of the pipe, when

Professor Morse discovered that his insulation was so imperfect that the telegraph would not operate. He did not, however, stop the work until he had received orders, which orders came in the following singular manner. When the evening train came out from Baltimore, Professor Morse was observed to step from the car; he walked up to Mr. Cornell and took him aside, and said, "Mr. Cornell, cannot you contrive to stop the work for a few days without its being known that it is done on purpose? If it is known that I ordered the stoppage, the papers will find it out, and have all kinds of stories about it." Mr. Cornell saw the condition of affairs with his usual quickness of discernment, and told the professor that he would make it all right. So he ordered the drivers to start the team of eight mules, which set the machine in motion, and, while driving along at a lively pace, in order to reach the Relay House, a distance of about twenty rods, before it was time to "turn out," managed to tilt the machine so as to catch it under the point of a projecting rock. This apparent accident so damaged the machine as to render it useless. The professor retired in a state of perfect contentment, and the Baltimore papers, on the following morning, had an interesting subject for a paragraph. The work thus being suspended of necessity, Professor Morse convened a grand council at the Relay House, composed of himself, Professor Gale, Dr. Fisher, Mr. Vaile, and F. O. J. Smith, the persons especially concerned in the undertaking. After discussing the matter, they determined upon further efforts for perfecting the insulation. These failed, and orders were given to remove every thing to Washington. Up to this time, Professor Morse and his assistants had expended twenty-two thousand dollars, and all in vain. Measures were taken to reduce the expenses, and Mr. Cornell was appointed assistant superintendent, and took entire charge of the undertaking. He

now altered the design, substituting poles for the pipe. This may be regarded as the commencement of "air lines" of telegraph. He commenced the erection of the line between Baltimore and Washington on poles, and had it in successful operation in time to report the proceedings of the Conventions which nominated Henry Clay and James K. Polk for the presidency.

Although the practicability of the telegraph had been so thoroughly tested, it did not become at once popular. A short line was erected in New York city in the spring of 1845, having its lower office at 112 Broadway, and its upper office near Niblo's. The resources of the company had been entirely exhausted, so that they were unable to pay Mr. Cornell for his services, and he was directed to charge visitors twenty-five cents for admission, so as to raise the funds requisite to defray expenses. Yet sufficient interest was not shown by the community even to support Mr. Cornell and his assistant. Even the New York press were opposed to the telegraphic project. The proprietor of the "*New York Herald*," when called upon by Mr. Cornell, and requested to say a good word in his favor, emphatically refused, stating distinctly, that it would be greatly to his disadvantage should the telegraph succeed. Stranger still is it, that many of those very men, who would be expected to be entirely in favor of the undertaking, viz., men of scientific pursuits, stood aloof, and declined to indorse it. In order to put up the line in the most economical manner, Mr. Cornell desired to attach the wires to the city buildings which lined its course. Many house-owners objected, alleging that it would invalidate their insurance policies by increasing the risk of their buildings being struck by lightning. Mr. Cornell cited the theory of the lightning-rod, as demonstrated by Franklin, and showed that the telegraphic wire would add safety to their buildings. Some

persons still refused, but informed him that could he procure a certificate from Professor Renwick, then connected with Columbia college, to the effect that the wires would not increase the risk of their buildings, they would allow him to attach his wires. Mr. Cornell thought the obtaining of such a certificate a very easy matter, as certainly all scientific men were agreed upon the Franklin theory. He therefore posted off to Columbia college, saw the distinguished savan, stated his errand, and requested the certificate, saying it would be doing Professor Morse a great favor.

To his utter consternation, the learned professor replied, "No, I cannot do that," alleging that "the wires *would* increase the risk of the buildings being struck by lightning." Mr. Cornell was obliged to go into an elaborate discussion of the Franklin theory of the lightning-rod, until the professor confessed himself in error, and prepared the desired certificate, for which opinion he charged him twenty-five dollars. This certificate enabled Mr. Cornell to carry out his plans.

In 1845, he superintended the construction of a line of telegraph from New York to Philadelphia. In 1846, he erected a line from New York to Albany in four months, and made five thousand dollars profit. In 1847, he erected the line from Troy to Montreal, by contract, and was thirty thousand dollars the gainer by it, which he invested in western lands. He also invested largely in telegraphic stock generally, other lines having been put up by other parties, being confident in the ultimate success of the magnetic telegraph. These investments in the past fifteen years, have so increased in value as to make Mr. Cornell one of the "solid men" of the country. He certainly has deserved success, especially as he was foremost in carrying the telegraph through the gloomy days of its early career.

As a gentleman of fortune, he has exhibited great liberality

by contributing largely toward many benevolent enterprises. In 1862 he was President of the State Agricultural Society; and while in London that year he sent several soldiers from England to the United States, at his own expense, who joined our army on their arrival at New York. In 1862–'3 he was elected a member of the New York Assembly, and in 1864–'5 a member of the Senate.

But the crowning glory of Mr. Cornell's career has been his munificent educational benefactions. He made Ithaca, New York, his home some years since, and discerning, in his quick way, the need of a public library there, he erected a building and gave an endowment of twenty-five thousand dollars, which he has since increased to fifty thousand, for the purchase of books, and the support of the necessary librarian, etc.

At this time, two educational institutions had been started in central New York, intended to be State institutions, and with the promise of considerable endowments, if the State would lend its fostering aid in enabling them to get under way. These were the People's college at Ovid, New York, and the Agricultural college at Havana, New York. Both received large sums from the State, and a considerable amount from private benefactions, and were to divide between them the agricultural college land grant of Congress, if they could comply with certain conditions. Both failed utterly, and rather from mismanagement than from lack of funds.

Mr. Cornell had been an attentive observer of the course pursued by these two colleges, and had formed a plan for the erection and endowment of a university which should not prove a failure. He was at this time a member of the State Senate, and having matured his plan, he asked for a charter for a university, to be located at Ithaca or its immediate vicinity, to be called

the Cornell university, which he proposed to endow with the sum of five hundred thousand dollars.

The charter was granted, but with one condition, which reflects more credit on the shrewdness, than the honor of the lobby. It was that he should be permitted to make this munificent endowment of a university, for the benefit of the youth of the State, if he would, over and above the five hundred thousand dollars, bestow an additional twenty-five thousand dollars upon Genesee college, at Lima, New York. Most men would have turned, with loathing, from a Legislature that could have the meanness to couple such a demand with their offer of a charter; but Mr. Cornell was too deeply interested in the promotion of education to draw back, and he met their demand, paid the twenty-five thousand dollars, and received his charter.

The next year, finding that both the colleges referred to had failed to comply with the conditions on which they were to receive the agricultural land grant, he asked it for his university on the same conditions, and received it. He had been, during all this time, busy in procuring the views and plans of the most eminent educators in regard to the organization of his university, and having increased his endowment to $760,000, he now took upon his own shoulders the location and sale of the agricultural land scrip, amounting to 990,000 acres, for the university, and with such success, that the ultimate endowment, from this source, will probably reach two millions of dollars or more. The complete and ample endowment of the university, in the speedy future, being thus placed beyond a contingency, he has superintended the erection of the needful buildings, for commencing the work of instruction, and in connection with the trustees of the university, elected Hon. Andrew White, an accomplished scholar, in the very prime of life, as president, and a large corps of able professors and lecturers, and to this faculty

he confided the duty of settling the course of study, and the general principles on which education is to be imparted in the new university. The plan adopted, while by no means ignoring the classics, provides for optional courses of study, the requirements in each being such as shall entitle the student, if he compasses them, to a degree; and they are so arranged, as to leave no loophole for any student to obtain his degree without severe and constant study, and an amount of attainment which, though more in the direction of his particular tastes, shall be fully equivalent to the demands of the best universities, either here or abroad. The university is most amply supplied with books, apparatus, museums, and all the appliances of successful study, which are to be found in any institution in the country, and its special and post graduate courses comprise many topics of study not hitherto connected with any university in the country.

Other liberal souls have availed themselves of the opportunity of adding special endowments to the different departments of this great school; and Cornell University, though an infant in years, has already taken its place among our collegiate institutions of the first rank.

A noble, grand, and praiseworthy benefaction is this; one whose blessed influences shall be felt in all the ages of the future, and shall exert an influence upon the nation, in enlarging its enterprise, elevating its purposes, and refining its intellectual aspirations. In Mr. Cornell's history, the young may see what industry and enterprise can accomplish; the mechanic may learn the results of energy, and the possibility of the combination of a great success with an active benevolence; and the rich may find that a wise beneficence brings in the largest revenue of happiness, and that it is better for a man of wealth to be his own executor, then to leave his fortune to be wasted by interminable lawsuits, and the bitter quarrels of heirs who neither knew nor loved him.

DANIEL DREW.

IT would seem probable to an abstract reasoner that men whose early advantages for education were very limited, but who by their enterprise and native capacity for business have amassed large fortunes, would not bestow any considerable portion of their hard earned wealth on educational institutions, however charitable might be their disposition toward other objects. Experience proves this deduction incorrect. The largest benefactors to education, in the present age certainly, have been men who not only never received instruction within college walls, but had but a scanty share even of the ordinary advantages of the district school. Peabody, Vassar, Cornell, Packer, Jay Cooke, are all examples of this, and the subject of our present sketch is not less remarkable in this respect than the others.

DANIEL DREW was born at Carmel, Putnam county, New York, July 29th 1797. His early years were passed on his father's farm, and his education in youth was only such as a country district school in that rocky farming county afforded. When fifteen years old his father died, leaving him to carve a fortune for himself. He directed his attention chiefly to the personal driving of cattle to market, and selling them, until 1829, when he made New York city his permanent residence, and there continued the cattle trade by establishing a depot,

and purchasing largely through agents and partners. In 1834, Mr. Drew was induced to take a pecuniary interest in a steamboat enterprise. From that time his history is identified with the inception and growth of the steamboat passenger trade on the Hudson river. By shrewd management, low rates of fare and good accommodations, the line which Drew promoted grew in favor with the travelling community, notwithstanding the powerful opposition brought to bear on it by other steamboat men, among whom was Commodore Vanderbilt. Competition ran so high, that at one time the steamboat Waterwitch, in which Drew had invested his first venture, carried passengers to Albany for a shilling each.

In 1840, Mr. Isaac Newton formed a joint stock company, in which Drew became the largest stockholder. This was the origin of the famous "People's Line," which commenced business by running new, large, and elegantly fitted-up steamboats, and from time to time added new and improved vessels to their running stock. When the Hudson river railroad was opened in 1852, it was confidently expected by many that the steamboat interest was doomed. Drew thought otherwise, and refused to accept the advice of his friends, who admonished him to sell his boats and withdraw from a business about to fail. The event justified his course. The railroad served but to increase travel, and rendered the steamboats more popular than ever. The large steamers now attached to the "People's Line," which command the admiration of every visitor and traveler on account of their superb decorations, and the extent and comfortable character of their accommodations, attest the prosperity attendant upon the management, a leading spirit of which Mr. Drew has been from the beginning. The Dean Richmond, St. John, and Drew are unsurpassed for model, machinery, speed, and finish, by any river steamboats in the wide world.

Mr. Drew has not only boldly adventured in "steamboating," but has won reputation and wealth in the much more uncertain sphere of stock-brokerage. In 1840 he formed a co-partnership with Mr. Nelson Taylor and Mr. Kelly, his son-in-law, in that business, which was carried on with marked success for more than ten years. Both these partners, although much younger than Mr. Drew, are sleeping in the tomb, while he is still employing some of his large capital in the same line through confidential hands. He has been for some years past an active director and very large stockholder in the Erie and several other of our trunk railroads, and his transactions in the stocks and bonds of these roads have been very large.

The noble deed which has brought him into special prominence, and rendered his name, like those of Cornell and Peabody, a synonym for active benevolence, is the founding of the Drew Theological Seminary, at Madison, Morris county, New Jersey. To this end Mr. Drew, at the recent centennial of Methodism, offered half a million dollars. The property purchased for the seminary is pleasantly situated in one of the most thriving towns, and in the midst of some of the finest scenery in northern New Jersey. Its distance from New York city is only twenty-eight miles.

Besides this large benefaction, Mr. Drew has contributed extensively to various religious and educational institutions, among which the Wesleyan University and the Concord Biblical Institute are prominent. To these institutions he has given in all about $150,000.

In Putnam county he owns upward of a thousand acres of land, on which large numbers of cattle are raised for the market. The pursuits of his early manhood have for him still strong attractions, but here again his management is marked by a generous spirit. On this estate he has been chiefly instru-

mental in the building of a church and school-house. In the latter, the advantages of a good education are afforded gratuitously to the children of the place. He has also established and endowed with about two hundred and fifty thousand dollars an excellent female seminary at Carmel, the county seat of this county, intended for the higher education of young women of the Methodist Church, to which he has recently made over this princely gift.

In form and physiognomy Mr. Drew is not especially impressive. His height is about six feet, his person slender, and his general expression and manner unassuming and mild, but firm. He stands before us as an example of the persevering, energetic, shrewd, and successful business man, and not only so, but also as an example of the practical workings of an earnest and sincere philanthropy.

THE END.

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